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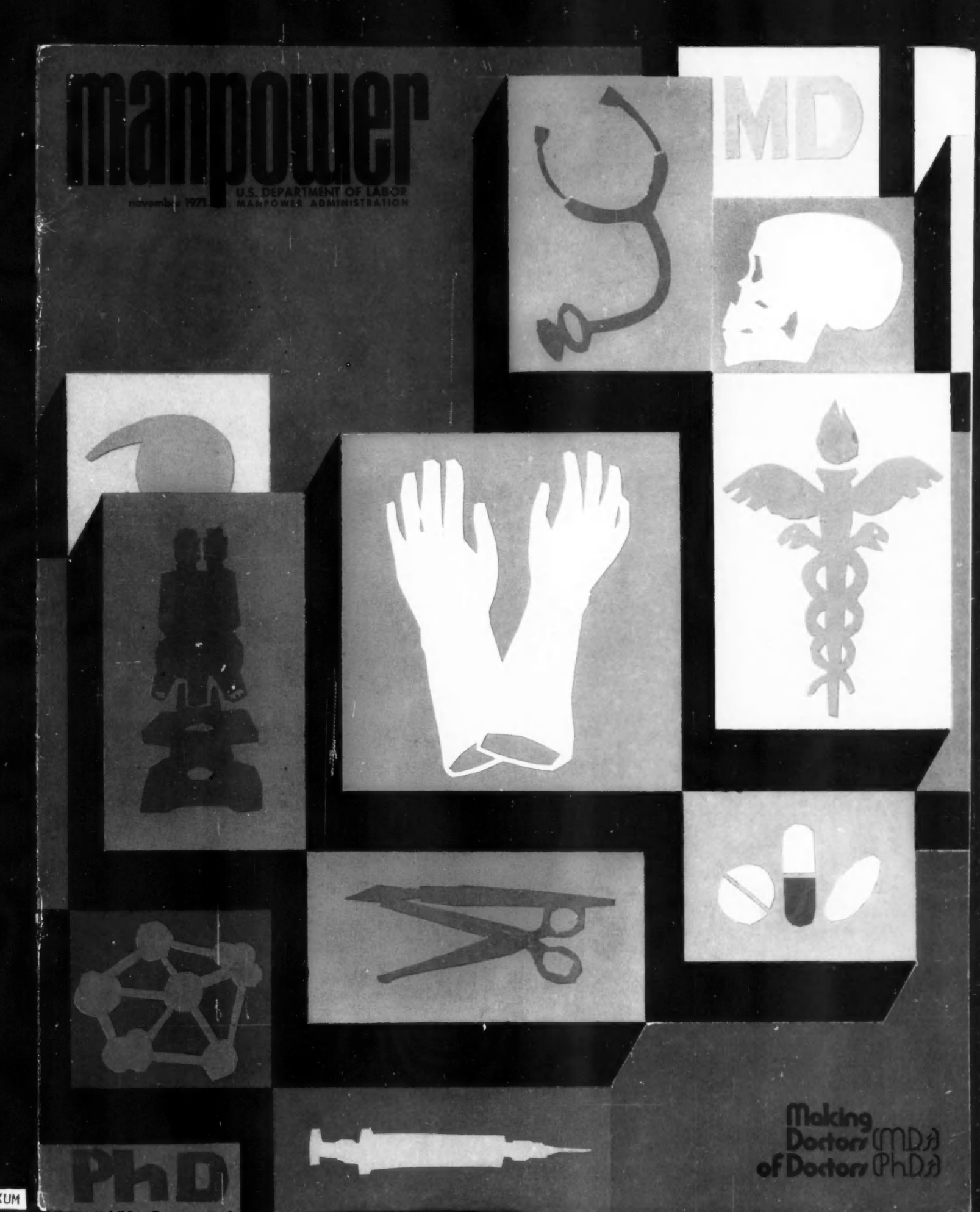

Making Doctors (M.D.s) of Doctors (Ph.D.s)

manpower
volume 3 number 11 U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

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The judgment of history may be that the search for a comprehensive manpower policy is comparable with the search for the Holy Grail.—Page 6

"I like easy placements like anyone else. But every man deserves a second chance."—Page 18

When you have spent most of your life mastering molecular biology or linguistics and you are now watching ball games on television at home or selling mutual funds or insurance, you are not exactly anxious to advertise it.—Page 9

"New problems have arisen during the course of the past year, caused to a great extent by the burgeoning AFDC rolls and the financial crises faced by many State welfare agencies."—Page 24

The British have demonstrated that the best way to get action from the individual employer—particularly the small and medium-sized one—is not to exhort him but to give him practical aid in establishing a training program.—Page 19

"Initially, I was shocked because I had not realized how great their handicaps are. But I got over this feeling in 5 minutes."—Page 31

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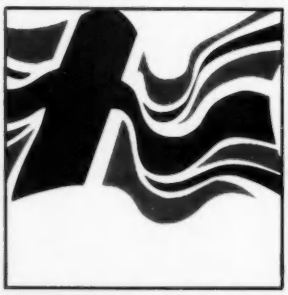

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COVER: Richard Mathews, Arts and Graphics Division, U.S. Department of Labor

J. D. Hodgson
Secretary of Labor

Malcolm R. Lovell, Jr.
Assistant Secretary for Manpower

Paul J. Fasser, Jr.
Deputy Assistant Secretary for Manpower and Manpower Administrator

Ellis Rottman, *editor*
Emil Michael Aun, *associate editor*
Patricia M rshall, *assistant editor*
Richard thews, *art director*

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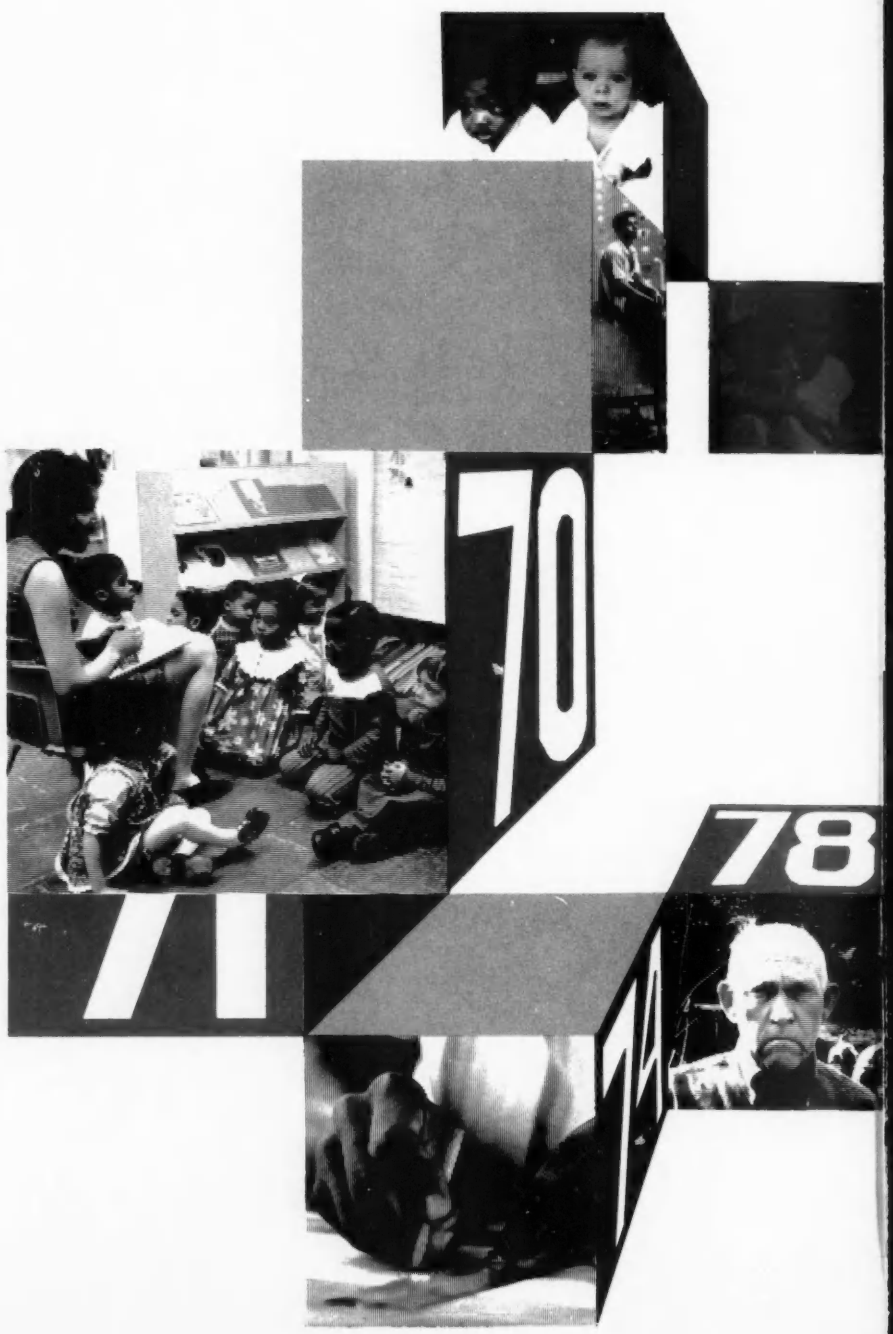
Human Resources Issues for the 70's

by Sar A. Levitan,
Garth L. Mangum,
and Ray Marshall



What will be the critical human resource issues in the foreseeable future? Crystal gazing is a hazardous pursuit. For example, few foresaw the increasing importance of female workers over the last three decades, or the "population explosion" that followed World War II and the more abrupt decline in birth rates that occurred during the 1960's. Nonetheless, social institutions and trends are to a large extent shaped by past events. This review provides at least a tentative basis for pinpointing some of the major issues indicating future directions of human resource development.

In all likelihood, the declining rate of population growth will be sustained. Preoccupation with ecological balance, improvement in birth control technology, and the erosion of mores which hindered effective family planning will continue to reduce birth rates, conceivably to the point of stabilizing the population. As a result, more resources will be available for the development of each child, and radical

Dr. Levitan is director of the George Washington University Center for Manpower Policy Studies; Dr. Mangum is professor of economics at the University of Utah; and Dr. Marshall is professor of economics at the University of Texas. This article is taken from their forthcoming book HUMAN RESOURCES AND LABOR MARKETS to be published by Harper & Row.

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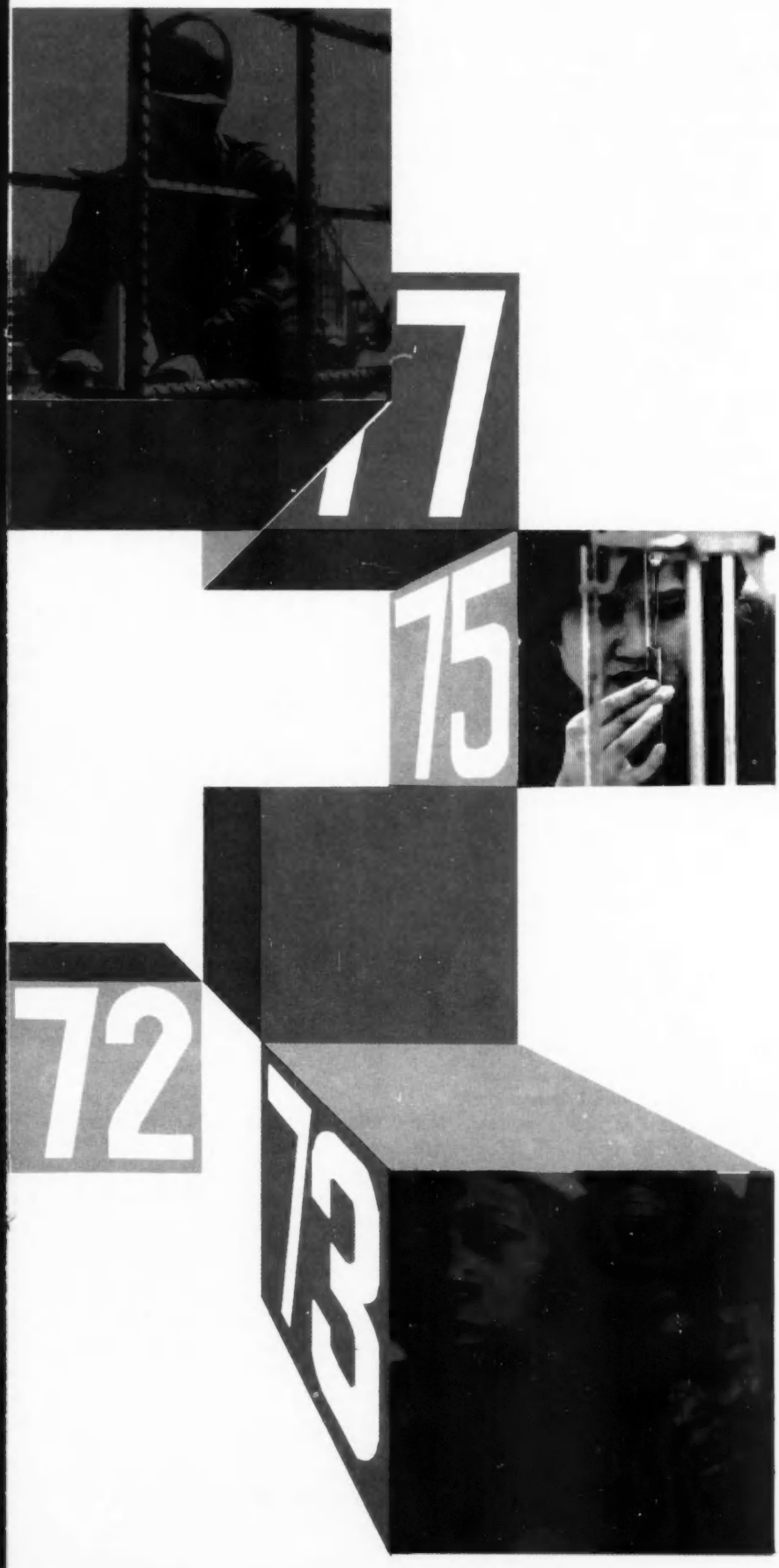


changes are likely in the way this smaller number of American children are reared and educated. Educational facilities have been hard pressed during this century to expand as rapidly as population and to meet the increasing demand for higher education. Consequently, few institutional arrangements have been provided for the care of preschoolers, and in most communities no organized provision is made for children until they reach the normal school entry age of six.

Yet the number of working mothers continues to increase, and these women and their families are likely to demand that society provide child care for working parents. Other countries which have grown to rely on female labor have expanded preschool child care facilities, as the United States did during World War II. The government already makes available some child care facilities, particularly for the poor under antipoverty programs, and the more affluent can purchase nursery care for their children, but universal coverage is needed. Child care arrangements also will have to include education and training components. This would mean extending government-supported education facilities to children age 3 or even younger. In all likelihood, child care will become one of the greatest growth industries in the years ahead.

At the other end of the school-age spectrum, the continued growth of higher education as we have known it during the past century is likely to be arrested. Already, 3 of every 4 young Americans continue their schooling until their 18th birthday, and almost 1 of 5 continues for 4 or more years. The need, wisdom, and practicality of this is being increasingly questioned; too frequently the added school years have little relation to preparation for work or for life. Education throughout one's work life will probably emerge rather than further prolongation of the exclusively preparatory period during one's childhood, youth, and early adulthood.

While mature and committed workers may occasionally turn to the educational system to recharge their intellectual batteries or their work skills, youth and young adults may combine work experience beyond their school walls with educational pursuits. This may lead to a restructuring of both educational facili-

ties and labor market institutions making them more flexible for the student-worker wishing to enter and leave school and work. As greater specialization is required of workers and more of their work life is spent in school, greater attention to counseling and exposure to work options will be needed to help them make occupational choices. Too often, career decisions are now being made on the basis of scholastic aptitude alone. Combining work experience with school attendance may lead to sounder career choices.

Less tangible than the changing institutional arrangements for job preparation, but potentially of greater significance, will be the continued transformation of attitudes towards work. Alleged loss of pride in craftsmanship and the deterioration of the quality of services is an increasingly common complaint. These developments presumably reflect not only widespread job dissatisfaction but also a general antipathy to work, replacing the traditional commitment to participation in the work force.

Work Attitudes Changing

Youth in particular are accused of rejecting the work ethic as the incentives of material rewards are becoming less important. To a large extent, these may be only youthful manifestations, and exaggerated at that. The addiction to creature comforts which "hooked" their elders is also likely to take hold of the current young as the responsibilities of family life induce them to maximize their incomes.

Nonetheless, real changes are taking place in work attitudes and they will have a pervasive influence in the future. Workers are becoming increasingly concerned with the qualitative aspects of work—not just with wages, hours, and benefits, but also with opportunities, responsibilities, and freedom on the job. As wages increase, income may become a less potent incentive and other motivating forces will be needed to insure discipline in the workplace. If economic prosperity and growth are sustained, the work ethic is likely to diminish for a generation of wage earners which has experienced nothing but relative affluence and job security.

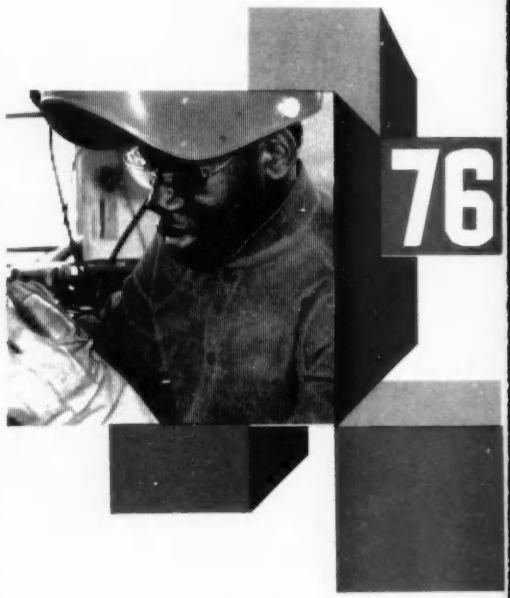
Apart from whatever changes are occurring in the work ethic, the inevitable growth of public income support efforts will continue to erode the distinction between work and welfare. As the welfare floor is raised to help those nominally unable to work and as supplements are extended to those who work but earn less than a socially acceptable minimum income, increasing numbers may opt for welfare instead of workfare, to borrow President Nixon's phrase.

The challenge is to develop adequate work incentive schemes to insure that those who can support themselves will do so. But work incentives are of no help to the millions of poor who are unable to find or hold a job because of old age, infirmity, child care responsibilities, or the lack of opportunities. Thus, maintaining a low guaranteed income and expecting the poor to supplement their welfare by earnings is not a general solution.

As the overlap between welfare and work increases, manpower programs will move closer to the center of the stage. Opportunities must be provided for all individuals who will work but are unable to earn an adequate income. Artificial credential barriers can be broken down through subsidies, employer education, and governmental fiat; upgrading can be assisted through supplemental education and training; the employability of participants can be improved by training, counseling, education, and related services. However, those who believe that manpower programs can substitute employment for welfare are likely to be disappointed. Only a minority of all welfare recipients can become self-supporting; manpower programs may have to maintain the more modest aim of helping some recipients to supplement their welfare income.

The scope and the effectiveness of manpower programs should be neither exaggerated nor denigrated. On the average, many participants appear to have had their employment stability and earnings improved. Others have not, primarily because manpower programs were being asked to solve social and economic problems beyond their reach. Manpower training cannot substitute for adequate economic growth and job creation in the Nation's labor markets. Manpower programs can hardly instill a preference for work over welfare, nor can they single-handedly overcome the cumulative disadvantages which are usually the cause of low earnings. Family breakup, alcoholism, and drug abuse are examples of social ills which have manpower implications but rarely have manpower solutions.

When applied appropriately, manpower programs, though hardly foolproof, can be effective. The relatively short experience with these programs during the 1960's must be viewed as experimental and their limited success heretofore does not preclude reliance on them in the future. From the many trials and failures experienced during the past decade, lessons were learned, services were improved, and new options were provided to disadvantaged persons, especially blacks, to improve their abilities and thus gain entry into the mainstream economy. In many cases, manpower programs offer a second chance to those who failed in, or were failed by, the educational system and for those whose skills have been eroded by technological change.



As more knowledge is gained about the needs of particular individuals and about the effectiveness of particular services or combinations of services in meet-

ing these needs, manpower programs may become an alternative for those who do not succeed in the regular school system. The experience gained from manpower programs may also help the regular school system to avoid many mistakes.

The combination of work and welfare is likely to be an increasingly important, but hardly the sole, focus of manpower programs in the 1970's. Other crucial tasks include assistance in retraining workers and offering upward occupational mobility.

Manpower programs are closely related to combating discrimination in employment. On one hand, these programs are frequently needed to help train the victims of discrimination to compete for available job opportunities. On the other hand, manpower programs can be effective only if discrimination in employment is eliminated. Civil rights legislation and manpower programs have contributed to the substantial gains of blacks; pressures from women's liberation groups and action under the civil rights legislation opened some doors for women; the problems of Chicanos, Indians, and other minorities were also documented and some efforts made at alleviation. Nevertheless, discrimination remains a persistent and festering disease in the American economy.

It is naive to assume that progress towards equal employment opportunity is guaranteed or that freedoms achieved in the past will necessarily persist. Other labor market problems may demand priority or opposition may increase from those who are challenged by the gains of minorities. Also, if positive steps are not taken, the situation may deteriorate because of adverse developments in the labor market. An increasing number of educated blacks may demand entrance into better paying or more responsible positions, while the value of a college education is declining as a guarantee of choice jobs. Constant vigil must, therefore, be exercised to insure that progress continues to be made.

It is the prime goal of manpower policy to insure that all human resources are fully developed and utilized. As long as discrimination exists and certain minorities are given fewer opportunities, assistance must be concentrated among these minorities. Manpower policy must therefore continue to focus on the victims of discrimination. Education must be improved, occupational training provided, and discriminatory barriers broken down. Both a push and a pull are required if those hampered by discrimination are to get an equal chance in the work force.

To achieve the expanded goals of human resource development, the government will have to assume an ever increasing responsibility. In recent years, the government's role in education, manpower programs, and related efforts has drastically expanded. At the same time, there is an increasing awareness of the effect that a wide range of government actions have upon the development and use of our human resources. No longer viewed separately and in isolation, these actions are now examined increasingly for their manpower implications.

A critical example is military manpower policies. Every war has had a profound impact upon manpower policy and the lastest war has been no exception: Escalation and deescalation of the Vietnam conflict resulted in the critical reexamination of draft policies; the exemptions based on college attendance and marriage were questioned and redefined; the quality of the selection process was debated and new methods were implemented. As manpower shortages developed in tight labor markets, the military, as would any other employer, lowered entry qualifications to draw upon the pool of underutilized disadvantaged youth, especially blacks, who could not meet the more stringent entry requirements developed during peacetime.

On the other hand, as military requirements declined with the withdrawal of American troops from Indochina, other manpower implications came to the fore. Unemployment rose, and though veterans were among those hit hardest, so few of them took advantage of training and education opportunities that the adequacy of these benefits was questioned. Attention turned to the idea of establishing volunteer armed forces, forcing the military to compete in the labor market.

Sustaining High Employment

Expanding governmental responsibilities have other broad implications for the development and use of human resources, not the least of which is the role of government as a civilian employer. In the past, neither the Federal Government nor the many State and local governments have acted as model employers. Pressures to eliminate discriminatory practices, to remove arbitrary credential barriers, and to expand training and advancement opportunities for the disadvantaged have resulted in some changes of governmental manpower practices. Yet much remains to be done, especially by State and local authorities, to make governments at all levels equal opportunity employers.

The government also plays a major role through such regulatory functions as the enforcement of antidiscrimination laws and wage and hour regulations. Perhaps most significantly, the Federal Government has assumed responsibility for the maintenance of a favorable economic climate. The Employment Act of 1946 made it the policy of the Federal Government to sustain maximum employment. The problem, however, is to achieve high employment without undue inflation, and the key issue, therefore, is the tradeoff between unemployment and inflation.

Manpower programs and other structural measures, such as aid to depressed

areas, in time may help to improve the terms of tradeoff, but there is no indication that both full employment and stable prices can be achieved in the immediate years ahead. Given this dilemma, expedience dictates measures which will cushion the negative effects of inflation in order to sustain a high employment economy. The progress made during the past 3 or 4 decades justifies optimism that increasingly sophisticated designs will ease the choice between inflation and unemployment.

According to dictionary definitions, no policy for human resources now exists. At the Federal level, most efforts have been a reaction to the special problems—real or imaginary—which caught public attention. Federal aid to elementary and secondary schools was initiated to help financially troubled areas, with little emphasis on educational innovations. Grants and loans to students were largely motivated by the Sputnik-induced fears of a technology gap. Manpower programs were funded in a haphazard fashion, in response to perceived needs. Military policies were promulgated to fight an unexpectedly difficult and unpopular war at what was thought to be the least political cost. Monetary and fiscal policies were geared to affect normal economic activity with little consideration of their impact on special groups or their relation to programs which focused on special needs.

It is not at all clear, however, that the impact of human resource programs would be more salubrious if a definite policy were selected to guide decisions. What would be the nature and scope of such a policy? From our examination of past and present developments, we cannot answer this vital question, but can define the ingredients and objectives of a human resources policy. Such a policy must be capable of identifying problems, setting goals, designing programs, marshaling resources, and mounting activities encompassing the entire labor market. To achieve the dual objectives of efficient allocation of manpower resources and optimum choice for participants in the work force, a manpower system should allow each individual to plan a working career in full awareness of his own abilities and alternatives open to him.

A high and sustained level of economic activity is necessary to provide opportunities of sufficient number and range. Restrictions unrelated to productivity or equity—such as over-credentialization and discrimination based on age, race, or sex—must not be allowed to interfere with access to, and rewards for, these opportunities. The distribution of jobs must be open and flexible. Only the lack of potential competence should restrain preparation and access to individual occupation choice; lateral and upward mobility should be maintained; help in adapting to economic and technological change should be available.

The reward structure—income, status, and job satisfaction—should be similarly unencumbered. All those able and willing to work should thus find both opportunities and rewards in the production of goods and services favored by society as reflected in the market place and the ballot box.

Limited Impact Noted

To what degree should policy be directed toward the achievement of these objectives? The supply of social energy is always limited and should be conserved for high priority efforts. Interrelated with the development of human resources, as we have noted, are fiscal, monetary, education, housing, transportation, welfare, health, defense, and myriad other economic and social problems. Such linkages should be noted and policymakers in each arena should act consistently, but no single policy can comprehend all the others. Indeed, experience suggests the wisdom of leaving to unguided individual choice all those decisions which will cause no serious problems in the aggregate, for centralized decisions are not necessarily wiser and, if shortsighted, may cause more damage than a series of unwise individual decisions.

Public intervention is, in some cases, appropriate, but its limits must be understood. First, programs concerned with development of human resources can hope to solve only problems related to employment and earnings. A manpower program can contribute to the solution of poverty only for those families with present or potential workers; it can solve social discontent only for those whose problems relate to the lack of meaningful employment. Manpower policies are likely to affect only marginally problems connected with family breakups, pollution, congestion, and other ills of a complex urban society. Second, public policy has only two sources of leverage: Dollars and votes. Policies which do not affect the distribution of either are only pious declarations and have little influence.

Despite these limitations, important strides have been made toward more conscious and comprehensive action in human resource development. Insights have been gained by improved data and measurement techniques; one result has been a "cross-fertilization" showing the interdependence of problems and programs which had previously been dealt with independently. Educators are growing more aware of the need to prepare students for work, while manpower policymakers realize the difficulty and high cost of providing remedial attention where the schools have failed the first time around.

The need to maintain full employment has been stressed by manpower analysts and the possibility of making monetary and fiscal policies more effective through manpower programs has received increasing scrutiny. Interdependence of equal employment opportunity for minorities with education and manpower policies is clearly recognized; the relation of all these policies to overall economic growth is also being examined. The debate over the volunteer army has highlighted the manpower implications of military actions.

Recognizing the interdependence of various aspects of human resource development is a far cry from articulating a comprehensive human resource policy. But it is not clear that such a policy is necessary or even desirable. The importance of various problems fluctuates as priorities change; public policy is hammered out step by step; the full consequences of existing programs and newly discovered concerns unfold slowly. Hence, the trial and error approach may, in the long run, prove as effective as the most elaborate planning, possibly even more so. A comprehensive "human resource policy" may not be compatible with a pluralistic society such as ours and the best that we can hope is for fragmented approaches to complex problems. The judgment of history may be that the search for a comprehensive manpower policy is comparable with the search for the Holy Grail. □

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News & Notes

Minorities are making steady progress in the apprenticeable trades. Nearly 12 percent of all new apprentices registered in 1970 were minority group members, compared with 10 percent in 1969, 8 percent in 1968, and 6 percent in 1967. The number of registered apprentices in all trades was at a record 280,000 last year, and among the 25,000 active minority group apprentices were 15,400 blacks, 6,160 Spanish-surnamed, 1,400 Indians, and slightly more than 2,000 Orientals. To ensure wider equal opportunity in all registered programs, Secretary of Labor J. D. Hodgson issued new apprenticeship regulations in April. These require program sponsors to take positive steps to bring minorities into apprenticeship through an aggressive affirmative-action program, to include an approval selection method and the establishment of percentage goals and timetables.

* * *

The first Job Bank was opened in May 1968 in Baltimore. The 100th was dedicated at Norfolk, Va., on September 2, 1971. "More than half the Nation's labor force is now served by Job Banks," said Manpower Administrator Paul J. Fasser. He added that experiments already are underway on the exchange of Job Bank data between States "so that we will be able to link statewide systems into a truly nationwide network." The Job Bank uses a computer system to make known daily on a wider scale what jobs are available within an area.

* * *

An unemployed 20-year-old New Jersey truckdriver was the first person to be hired for a public service job under the Emergency Employment Act. Alfonso Reyes, of Paterson, went to work August 16 as a trainee equipment operator for the city's public works department. Reyes, who had been out of work since May, started his new job at $100 a week. When President Nixon signed the $1 billion appropriation bill on August 9, he urged the Labor Department to get people on the job by Labor Day.

* * *

Hourly wage rates of union building trades workers in cities of 100,000 or more increased 6.8 percent between April 1 and July 1, 1971, compared with 7.7 for the same period a year earlier. The increase for the year ending July 1, 1971, was 11.4 percent compared with 11.8 percent for the previous year. The average wage on July 1, 1971 was $7.04, up 43 cents during the quarter.

* * *

Sammy Davis, 21, of Los Angeles, a Manpower Administration trainee, has won the first annual Wayne Vaughn Memorial Award as the Nation's outstanding apprentice in the drywall industry. The award was established in honor of a leader in the industry. Davis, now a journeyman drywall taper, took his apprenticeship training under the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program.

* * *

Since December 1969, about 20,000 U.S. workers have been certified as eligible for assistance under the Trade Expansion Act of 1962. These are people who have lost their jobs due to increased imports. They are eligible for cash readjustment allowances, full access to employment service counseling and job placement services, retraining if required, and in some instances relocation.

* * *

The immediate past national commander of the Veterans of Foreign Wars has been named director of the Veterans Employment Service in the Labor Department's Manpower Administration. He is Herbert Ray Rainwater, formerly assistant city administrator for San Bernardino, Calif., who served with the field artillery in China during World War II.

* * *

Learning a trade can be so interesting that men will sacrifice a bit of freedom to get it. Eight prisoners at the California Institute for Men, a State prison in Chino, have refused to be discharged upon completion of their sentences or when paroled because they wanted to finish a 9-month course in deep-sea diving. One of the prisoners served an extra 5 months.

* * *

Accountants have been in short supply for several years but they no longer are. Many accounting firms are cutting down their number of hires. In the spring of 1969, the City University of New York placed 60 percent of its graduating class of accountants with accounting firms. In 1971, this percentage sank to 19 percent. Three of the Nation's largest firms announced their hiring levels this year were way below normal.

Making Doctors (M.D.'s) of Doctors (Ph.D.'s)

by William Cole

XUM

On a brutally cold day in Chicago last winter, I hailed a cab in front of my hotel and slid in. "O'Hare airport," I said, "and please step on it, bud."

"Yes, sir." The driver gave it the gun and off we sped. "Still in a rush, aren't you, Bill?"

I leaned forward to get a good look at the driver. "Ed! What in hell? . . . What the . . . Wha . . .?"

"Never thought I'd have a reporter speechless," he said, grinning. "I know what you're thinking. 'Ah, how the mighty have fallen!' "

"But you? A marine biologist. I know engineers have been laid off by the thousands."

The slump in science and technology was across the board, Ed said. Engineers were hit hardest but it was bad for all. If you were a mechanic, a plumber, a bricklayer, you had it made, but the market for doctors of philosophy, particularly in science, was glutted. Ed had left a cushy spot at the University of Illinois to join a challenging project at the Mote Marine Laboratory in Sarasota, Fla. Something to do with tracing the nerve impulses in the axon of the giant squid.

"Just as we were getting somewhere, our funds were cut off."

Out of a job, he had found the doors shut tight. For over a year he sent resumes around but there was no room for him at the top of the heap—or even in the middle of the heap, where he was pronounced "overqualified." So when his unemployment insurance and his self-assurance ran out, he sold his home on Chicago's North Shore with the pool and the tennis court and began driving a cab.

"At least it keeps me outdoors," he said. "Alice has gone back to pounding a typewriter, and my daughter is married and my son is in Canada, so we make out all right."

At the airport, when I hesitated in embarrassment, not knowing whether to include a tip with the fare, he laughed. "Sure, I'll take it—I need the money now."

"Things will pick up, Ed. This is just a temporary lull."

"Yes," he said, without much conviction. "It's just that after a while you get to thinking maybe it's a permanent lullaby."

Four months later I heard that Ed was back in a slot where he belonged: Investigating the remarkable blood-brain barrier and perceptual apparatus of the shark. However, thousands of other highly trained and skilled scientists still are unemployed or working in jobs in which their talents are going down the drain.

While unemployment among scientists may appear low compared with other workers, it is rising rapidly. A survey conducted last spring by the National Science Foundation among 250,000 scientists—about half of all the scientists in the United States—found an unemployment rate of 2.6 percent compared with 1.5 percent a year earlier.

Stress on Degrees Questioned

Some other grim statistics: The average length of unemployment experienced as of June 1971 was over 7 months. Scientists under 30 years of age reported by far the highest unemployment rate, 5.3 percent, of any age level. A total of 5.6 percent of the employed scientists were engaged in work which had little or no relation to science.

It is suspected that conditions are even worse among the 50 percent of U. S. scientists who did not respond to the survey. When you have spent most of your life mastering molecular biology or linguistics and you are now watching ball games on television at home or selling mutual funds or insurance, you are not exactly anxious to advertise it. Prospective employers are turned off when they learn that you are not actively pursuing your career. ("If he was really good, they wouldn't have laid him off.")

The plight of these individuals, representing some of the best brains in the country, who just a few years ago were given the red-carpet treatment, has caused some observers to question the heavy stress we place on higher education. Aside from the possibility that we may be misleading the young as to the proven economic benefits of remaining in school and collecting sheepskins, we might also ask ourselves what we as a nation are losing by having some of our most highly educated citizens push taxis or trucks around.

In one vitally important scientific field, however, there is no unemployment. This is in the medical and health professions. In fact, the shortage of medical manpower in the United States is so critical that it has been characterized by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education as "the most serious in any major occupational group." Many authorities believe it to be the Nation's No. 1 health problem. Millions of poor families in cities have no access to regular medical care and whole areas of the countryside are without a single doctor. It is estimated that 50,000 more physicians are needed than are available, and the Carnegie Commission has recommended a 50 percent increase over the next decade in enrollments in schools of medicine.

The main reason for the shortage is not the lack of zeal on the part of our youth for caring for the ill, but the lack of space in our medical schools for training them as physicians. According to Dr. Harry W. Bruce, Jr., director of the National Institutes of Health's Division of Physician and Health Professions Education (DPHPE), the Federal agency most deeply involved in alleviating the physician shortage, thousands of qualified, dedicated young men and women are unable to gain admission to an American medical school.

As Dr. Bruce points out, President Nixon's recent health message to Congress, proposing incentives in the form of grants for medical schools to increase their production of physicians, should greatly increase the number of medical school graduates. However, building new medical schools and expanding existing ones takes considerable time and staggering sums of money. The approach to the problem that seems most promising to medical educators is to reduce the time required to earn a medical degree.

In line with this approach, DPHPE is

Mr. Cole is a freelance writer.

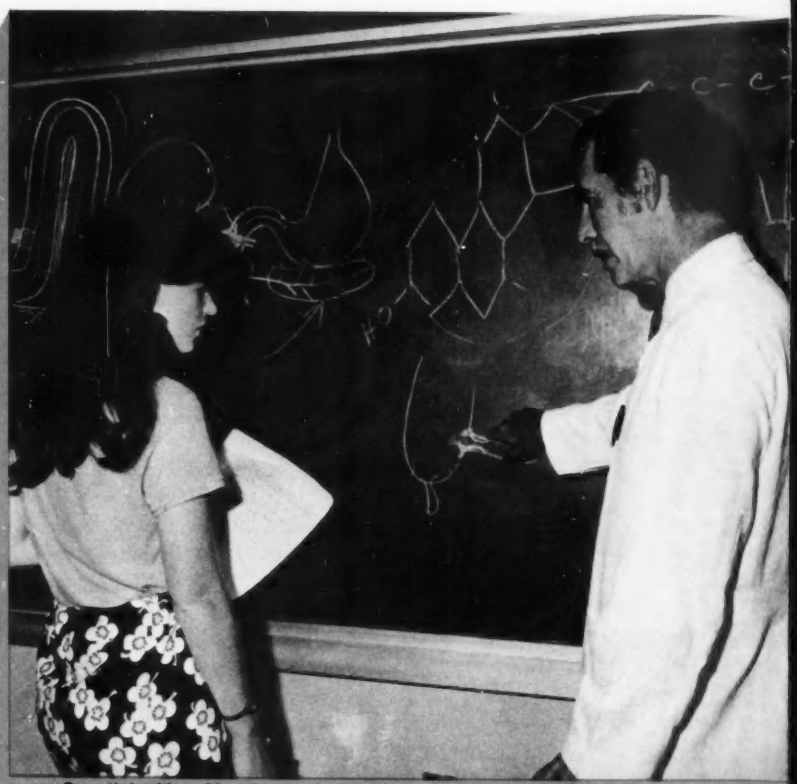
contributing nearly $164,000 to an experimental program at the University of Miami School of Medicine, in which people with Ph.D.'s in science will be graduated as medical doctors in 18 to 24 months instead of the usual 4 years required to complete medical school. The Federal money goes for teachers' salaries and program overhead but each student must pay $2,000 tuition annually out of his own pocket.

The program was the brainchild of Dr. William J. Harrington, chairman of the department of medicine at Miami. He had nurtured the idea for several years, and saw the timeliness of introducing it now to relieve the shortage of physicians and the underemployment of scientists. The program is based on the belief that many men and women with doctor of philosophy degrees in a biological science, and some with a degree in a physical or engineering science, already have fulfilled most of the requirements of the first 2 years of medical school training.

"A preclinical program of a few months' duration, tailored to individual needs, should bring these exceptionally qualified candidates into our third-year curriculum," says Dr. William J. Whelan, chairman of the department of biochemistry at the university and director of the new program. "If all 4-year schools of medicine introduce similar programs, several hundred additional physicians would be produced over the next 2 to 3 years. The cost would be low. And, most important, there would be better use of many highly qualified scientists who currently find it extremely difficult—even impossible—to obtain or retain jobs within their accustomed fields."

All 20 members of the program—17 men and 3 women, aged 25 to 35—were employed in their specialties before their enrollment. As this is a pilot project to test the feasibility of converting Ph.D.'s to M.D.'s, the employment factor was set aside and applicants were chosen solely on their qualifications. The 20 selected were at the top of the list of 130 applicants, all with outstanding records.

Sixteen of the students have doctorates in subjects closely related to medicine, such as biochemistry, pharmacology, and



Geneticist Mary Mascia gets help with a problem in physiology class from instructor Dr. Leon Cuervo.

Robert Witty (left) and Karin Olson, whose doctoral degrees in physiology made it possible for them to skip some of the remedial courses and begin clinical training, watch Dr. Carl Ortuss, a neurology resident, examine a patient at Miami's Jackson Memorial Hospital.

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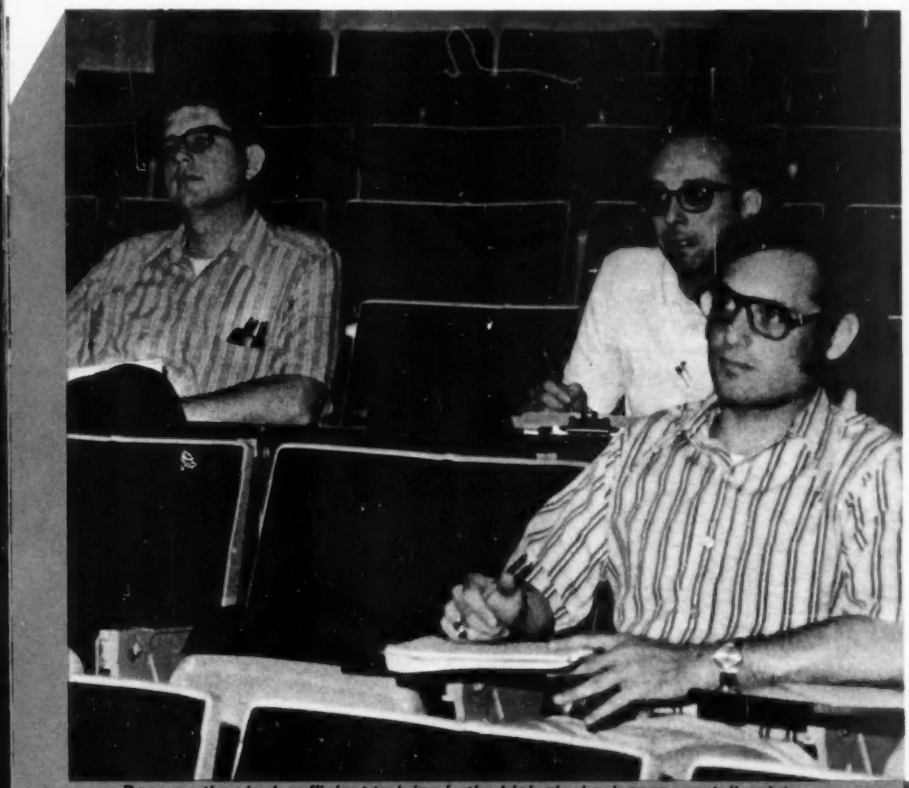

Because they lack sufficient training in the biological sciences, metallurgist Francis Furman (left), chemist Frederick Minn, and physicist Walter Fried (right) must take remedial courses not required of their colleagues whose degrees are in fields more closely related to medicine.

'. . . taking advantage of the fact that . . . Ph.D. scientists have more than satisfied the medical school requirements for 2 years of basic science . . . could . . . cut the cost of their medical education. In addition, it would reclaim for the use of society knowledge and skill now going to waste.'

Physicist Carlisle Morgan (left), biologist Lee Schacter, and pharmacologist Jeane McCarthy join Dr. Michael Snow (right), assistant professor of biological structure, in the dissecting room for a lesson in gross anatomy.

Students, faculty members, and administrators often end the day with a group discussion of progress and problems. Leading this session is Dr. William Whelan (standing), program director.

physiology. Basic science training in the usual first 2 years of medical school covers biochemistry, biological structure (anatomy), microbiology, pathology, pharmacology, and physiology. By pretesting the students, using the examinations of the National Boards of Medical Examiners, it was determined where their deficiencies in these six areas lay. Students were excused from studying any subject in which they had proven proficiency.

Remedial courses in biochemistry, biological structure, and physiology were conducted between July and mid-September for students who needed them, after which they joined regular second-year medical students for the usual courses in microbiology, pathology, and pharmacology. A neuroscience course will complete 6 months of remedial training, by which time all students will be ready to enter clinical training. The remedial courses will have brought all the test project students to the point where they can step into the third-year medical curriculum, and specially designed clinical clerkships will enable most of them to complete their studies by the end of 1972, a total of 18 months.

The chemist, the metallurgist, and the two physicists in the program will find the going more difficult than their colleagues whose degrees are in fields more closely related to medicine. "These four represent a special challenge," Dr. Whelan says. "But we wanted just such a test. The technological aspects of medicine today are such that we believe there is a place in the profession for a wide range of disciplines. Even though they have a minimum biological background, the academic records of these people are so impressive that the selection committee was convinced the challenge can be met."

Interviewed shortly after the program began, several of the participants were as yet unable to evaluate the degree of difficulty they would have in "catching up" to the third-year medical students within 6 months. While they admitted it would take hard work, all shared the confidence of the selection committee that they would make it. All were highly enthusiastic about the program, considering themselves fortunate for gaining admission.

"Some of us originally wanted to enter medical school," said Mary Ella Mascia, 25, who got her doctorate in genetics. "But we couldn't afford it. Grants were available for those studying to be Ph.D.'s, and after we received our degrees, we earned good salaries. Now we can pay our way through medical school, but another 4 years would have been too long—and unnecessary. This accelerated program is just right for us."

Jack Young, 34, a biologist who taught for 4 years at the University of Oklahoma, applied for the program for the same reason cited by most. "I wanted to make a contribution to society. Sure, my teaching job was meaningful and satisfying. But I had long thought of being a doctor, and now they're desperately needed while college professors are not. I'll either go into private practice or medical education." (There is also a severe shortage of medical school teachers.)

1,000 Applications Expected

When Walter Fried, 25, graduated from college, he found the quotas for medical school applicants very limited, so he got his Ph.D. in physics. Now he is returning to the career of his original choice. He fully realizes it will be a tough grind for him, but he is jubilant to have a chance to go into what he really wants, medical research. With an M.D. degree, he will have many advantages over Ph.D. researchers. More independence, for one thing. And he will be able to work in his investigations with human patients, not just animals.

All of the students who contemplated going into medical research stressed this point. As Ph.D.'s, they could not work with humans in their studies and so had to take a secondary role to the M.D.'s who headed up the research teams.

What about the family doctor? Aren't general practitioners the greatest need?

"Yes," says Dr. Whelan, "and quite a few of the students have expressed an interest in general practice. Some will decide just what niche they'll fill a little later on. Some, like David Miche, who was an assistant professor of physiology and surgery on our faculty here, and Robert Pyke, who taught chemistry and biology at Loras College in Iowa, know precisely what they want to do now. They want to practice medicine, and that's why they entered the program.

"The special incentives offered by the Government for medical school graduates who go into general practice should increase the number of family doctors. Our job is just to graduate them."

While plans for continuing Government support of the Miami program after completion of the demonstration are not certain, Dr. Whelan feels that the program should and probably will become a permanent fixture at the medical school.

One way of judging the long-term future of the program is to look at the pool of applicants. Now that news of the program has spread, inquiries are pouring into Miami. Some 100 inquiries and 25 completed applications for the 1972 entering class are being received each week. The Admissions Committee expects to handle almost 1,000 applications for this class. Under discussion is the possibility of increasing class size by taking advantage of new methods of computer-assisted instruction, which are ideally suited to students with diverse backgrounds who need individually tailored study programs.

Dr. Whelan views the program as "a very efficient way of turning out physicians. The cost of building 20 new medical schools would be astronomical and take many years. If each of our 100 medical schools would train 20 doctors through a program such as ours, we would have the same results."

DPHPE's Dr. Bruce agrees, pointing out that, if the University of Miami experiment is successful and is adopted by other medical schools in the country, it could result in a substantial increase in the number of physicians within a radically shortened period.

"By taking advantage of the fact that these Ph.D. scientists have more than satisfied the medical school requirements for 2 years of basic science," Dr. Bruce says, "this innovation could also cut the cost of their medical education. In addition, it would reclaim for the use of society knowledge and skill now going to waste." □

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Placements:

Employment Service Interviewers Feel Job-Hunt Strain Along With Clients

Placement interviewer Earl "Ed" Correll looked closely at the jobseeker across his desk at the Indianapolis office of the State employment service. The applicant was a thin, shabbily dressed 28-year-old white man. Despite his youth, he was haggard, his teeth rotting, his hair half gray, his nervous hands coiling and uncoiling in an abrasive rhythm.

He had been working as a $2.80-an-hour television tube grinder in northern Indiana but quit rather than face an 8-week layoff. He was divorced, had custody of his two children, and could not afford to miss a paycheck. Registration cards from employment services in three other Indiana cities revealed his frantic town-to-town search for work.

I'll bet he slept in his car last night, Correll thought.

Correll flipped on the Job Bank viewer on his desk. There were no openings for grinders. It would have been quick and easy to turn the man away and move on to the next applicant selected from the dozens waiting. Jobs were scarce, unemployment high, and local people needed help too. But Correll, a father himself, could not erase from his mind the picture of two children depending on this man in front of him. And the man did have a good work record.

Mr. Aun is associate editor of MANPOWER.

Correll searched the viewer for other production jobs, got clearances from the Job Bank center, and made a rapid-fire series of calls to employers. Nothing. The minutes ticked away, and there were those other clients waiting.

Correll examined the man's application again carefully and noted he had been a carpenter's helper. He flipped the viewer to the construction section and spotted a likely prospect, a roofing contractor in a nearby city. Within seconds, Correll had clearance from the Job Bank and was on the phone with the employer.

"I have a man here with a fine work record," he said. "He's been employed as a grinder but he has some carpentry experience, and he's willing to relocate. He's 28, a high school graduate, and he has a family. I want you to talk to him. He's here now and I'll send him right out." This skillful sales presentation took less than a minute.

Correll took a road map from his desk, wrote out directions for the applicant, and gave him a referral card. The man stammered a garbled thanks and was gone.

"The job's 40 miles outside the city and most residents just don't want to work that far out," Correll explained. "So in a case like this you ignore the preference (for veterans and the disadvantaged) when you have a man on hand that's willing."

Can't Get Too Involved

His reluctance to admit he had been touched by a client's plight was understandable. A professional in his spot cannot afford to get emotionally involved too often; he couldn't get through the day. Unemployment in Indianapolis in June reached 6.1 percent (seasonally unadjusted), the highest since 1960 and nearly every jobseeker had a special set of problems. Job listings were down and so were placements. The psychological impact of having to tell people no job is available is too much sometimes even for an experienced professional. Correll was crisply efficient at the start of the day. By mid-afternoon, he began to show signs of strain and hesitated before calling in the next client.

"I've gotten so I don't tell them there are no openings," he said. "I just say I don't have anything here right now."

One of Correll's colleagues, Florence Hopson, works in a quieter setting. She is a placement interviewer in the commercial and professional office, where clients are generally better dressed, better educated, and less numerous than in industrial and service, where Correll works. Yet, by mid-afternoon she too had lost some of her cheerfulness and bounce.

Her greatest satisfaction as a professional is making a good placement, and she admits it used to be a lot easier. In the first 6 months of 1970 she was credited with 160 placements; for the comparable period this year she was down to 122, a 24 percent drop. Her record was better than average. The drop for the Indianapolis office as a whole in nonagricultural placements was nearly 40 percent.

Indianapolis employment officials do not blame it all on rising unemployment, however. They point out that employment service placements everywhere have been declining for several years. The reason: Too much concentration on the disadvantaged. "Employers resent it," said one supervisor. "They want better qualified people. It's understandable. Who would you hire if you were in business?"

But even qualified people are finding the going sticky. One of Mrs. Hopson's applicants was a young man with a bachelor's degree in biology and a minor in geology. For 6 months he had been working for a record company, filling mail orders. His salary was $120 a week.

"They fired me because they said I didn't catch on quick enough." Why would a college graduate work as an order taker? "I got the job part time while I was still in school. When I graduated, I couldn't get on anywhere else so I agreed to stay full time."

Working quietly, Mrs. Hopson established that he could type 40 words per minute ("pretty good for a male"), had no supervisory experience, was in the Air National Guard, and could fly. "I'd like to use my degree if I could," he said.

"With your biology we could get you lab work," she said. "And we do have some chemical sales jobs, if you're interested."

He wasn't; he wanted outdoor work. "If I could fly and do conservation work, that would be ideal." Mrs. Hopson was pleased. After several minutes of probing she had led him down to the crucial point: Establishing a job goal that was realistic in terms of his education, skills, and interests.

Fingering the DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES—one of her basic tools along with the Job Bank viewer and the telephone—she said, "I'm going to give you an entry code for forestry work." She marked the code number on his application, so it could quickly be matched to a forestry job if one came open. Meanwhile, though they were not in the Job Bank, she knew some forestry positions were open in neighboring Kentucky. She asked him to go up the street two blocks to another employment service office which lists jobs for the entire Nation. She also pointed out that next to the building where she was sending him was the Indiana Natural Resources Department, which might have openings.

"Could I draw unemployment while I look for a job?" he said.

"Sure. Incidentally, what's the least salary you'll take in case I should have something?"

"I don't think $150 is too much."

Persistence Pays Off

Like Correll, Mrs. Hopson betrayed a slight weakness for a jobseeker with a family. Perhaps it was because of her own struggle to raise three children—now 18, 13, and 10—alone. Or perhaps it was because the man was a veteran. Whatever the reason, she seemed to make an extra effort for a 20-year-old client who had an infant daughter. This was his second try with the employment service and after a month out of work he was getting uneasy.

"I see you quit your last job," she said.

"I had to," he said. "I was making $115 a week in this pet shop but it turned out I was acting as manager and it got up to about 75 hours a week with no extra pay and that's mighty hard on a marriage. I tried California. I was going to learn elevator installation with my brother-in-law but it didn't work."

"What would you like to do?"

"I'll take a clerk's job. The salary's not important. It's the potential."

The Job Bank listed an opening as an assistant store manager and she called the employer. The job was filled but the employer had neglected to notify the Job Bank. "Shall I call the Job Bank and

cancel the listing for you?" she asked. This happened to her several times during the day, eating up a lot of valuable time.

She tried again. A tire company wanted a service manager. The job paid $600 a month plus incentives for a 50-hour week. But the employer refused to see her client; not enough experience.

A car rental company willing to pay $120 a week for a combination cashier and serviceman said it could not hire him because of his age. Insurance requirements ruled out anyone under 21. A glass company offering $400 a month for a credit clerk had decided to hire someone else.

She would not let the next employer, an auto parts supplier, off the hook, despite his protest that he needed someone at least 21 with stockroom background. "He's a fine young man, steady, has family responsibilities, and will be 21 in December," she said. Admittedly he had no stockroom experience but "I thought you wanted someone who could move up." Finally the employer relented.

"He'll see you. The job pays $2.50 an hour. You better go right over there and sell yourself."

"If I can sell someone a $200 dog (he had done so on his last job) I can sell myself," he said jauntily, as he pocketed the slip and waved goodbye.

Mrs. Hopson had taken about 45 minutes, twice as long as the average, but she thought it was worth it. "Poor thing," she said. "He needs a job. His wife's not working."

She successfully hid her disappointment at another client, an attractive blonde of 20 seeking a secretary's job, who was barefoot and wearing blue jeans. "Imagine her coming in looking like that," said Mrs. Hopson later. "She knows better."

The young woman said that on her last job she had resisted an amorous superior's advances and was fired.

"You type well," said Mrs. Hopson, looking over results of the test administered down the hall a few minutes earlier. "Why didn't you take the shorthand test?"

The client said she was still brushing up. She refused a referral as a clerk-typist. "I want to use my shorthand," she said. "I've been practicing 1 to 2 hours a day. It's 60 to 70 words now. I want to get it back to 100." Mrs. Hopson said 80 would be satisfactory and scheduled a test for the following week.

"And when you come in, be prepared to go out on a job interview," said Mrs. Hopson, courteously. After the client departed, Mrs. Hopson added, "Maybe I should have said to dress appropriately, but she knew what I meant."

Unquestionably, far too many job hunters stumble over barriers of their own making. One 19-year-old girl turned up in a skimpy, inappropriate dress. When Mrs. Hopson referred her to a job, she dragged along her sleepy male companion. Another was not neatly dressed as she went out to an interview for an office job at a large firm.

Many clients fail to keep their appointments after referral. Both Correll and Mrs. Hopson got indignant calls from employers reporting no-shows. "On the way there, they decide it's too far and simply give up," said Correll. He and Mrs. Hopson try to guard against this by making sure the applicant has transportation before sending him or her out. Correll refused to refer a carpenter to a job until he persuaded the employer, who was not near public transportation, to also consider the man's brother, who had a car. He then persuaded the brother to go along and apply. "That way if you get the job you'll have transportation," he told the applicant.

Questions Have a Purpose

Some clients are simply creatures of circumstance. A woman in her thirties was so jittery she could not cease crossing and uncrossing her hands and legs and noisily chewing gum. A former mental patient, she had been out of work 6 months. Mrs. Hopson had sent her out on seven previous referrals, without success. On her last job interview she had flunked the math test required by the employer. "She's a good typist if they'll just give her a chance," said Mrs. Hopson.

Mrs. Hopson's courtesy is so disarming that applicants do not realize they are being handled by a skilled interrogator who never wastes a word or a gesture. "Hello, how are you? I'm Mrs. Hopson. Take a seat," she says by way of greeting and the interview is immediately under way. She seems able, from a short appraisal of the client and a quick reading of his application, to sense what pertinent information he is trying to hide or has failed to reveal.

One woman, under her quiet guidance, revealed she had just had an illegitimate child. Another did not know or refused to tell her family's income; Mrs. Hopson was able to make a workable estimate based on where her mother and father worked and the types of jobs they held. Ferreting out the truth is not a question of being nosy. She has to determine if the applicant qualifies as disadvantaged and is thus entitled to a wide range of services not given to others seeking employment service aid.

"My friends tell me I should have been in the FBI," she laughed.

One young woman, however, was like a stone wall. She was 22, a high school graduate with 3 years of typing, lived with her parents in a fairly affluent neighborhood, was neat, and appeared eager to work. Yet she seemed to have no significant work experience and had been laid off after a week as a grill cook.

Her General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) scores were poor, particularly in math and English, but despite repeated polite efforts, Mrs. Hopson could not discover from the client why the tests had been administered by the vocational rehabilitation division instead of the employment service. If the woman had a handicap of some kind, Mrs. Hopson needed to know to help place her. She could easily find out with one quick phone call, but she did not want to do so with the woman present, so she went on with the interview.

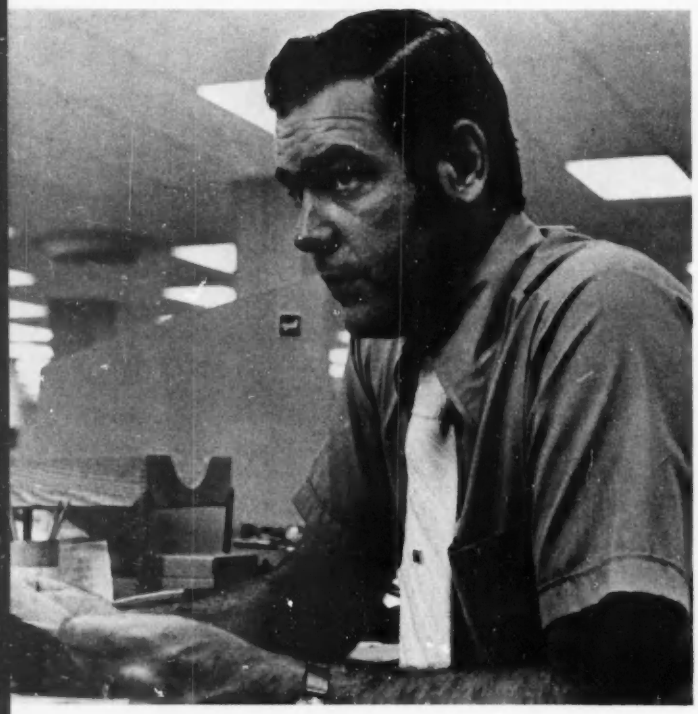
The client said she wanted "restaurant work or anything" and would take a factory job. Mrs. Hopson failed to find anything for her on the Job Bank viewer and tried to get her interested in job training. The woman adamantly refused. Sensing she did not like classroom work, Mrs. Hopson tried to explain that many of the courses, such as for beauticians, did not require much academic skill. But the woman could not be budged. It was a quick job or nothing and she got up and left.

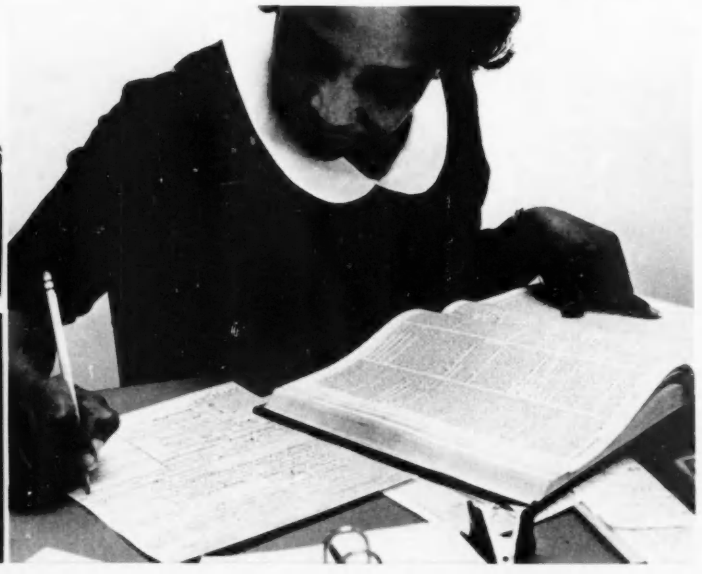
"Some are just lost causes," sighed Mrs. Hopson. But she did not leave it at that. She called the test administrator, got the woman's test results, and asked a great number of questions. "We've got to do something for her."

Placements *continued*

For families which accompany applicants there is nothing to do but wait.

Ed Correll listens to a client.





Florence Hopson at work with the tools of her trade: The Job Bank viewer, the telephone, and the "Dictionary of Occupational Titles."

Many applicants, many moods.

Idle hands searching for work— a familiar employment service scene.

Although Mrs. Hopson and her colleagues use the Job Bank extensively, they are ambivalent about it. "Mechanically it's doing all right," said one supervisor. "But we've lost a lot of valuable personal contact with employers."

Employers now phone job orders to the Job Bank instead of to their favorite placement interviewer. And the interviewers do not visit employers anymore. That responsibility now belongs to employers' representatives and Mrs. Hopson's office has only one to service 4,000 accounts, 800 of them major (25 or more employees). To fill the gap, placement interviewers are required to make 15 promotional telephone calls each per month to solicit job orders.

These can be highly effective. Mrs. Hopson earlier in the day was unable to find a listing for a 33-year-old woman just laid off as a keypunch operator. With a half hour of the work day left and the waiting room finally clear of new applicants, she began making promotional calls. The first was to a local life insurance company. She nailed down two listings, both for keypunch operators. She did the necessary paper work to mount them on the Job Bank, but first she called the laid-off operator and told her to come down in the morning for a referral slip.

Some employers still call their favorite interviewer rather than the Job Bank. And one employer simply walked into the office. He needed warehousemen for his plastics company immediately. He was assigned a desk near the applicants' waiting area and Correll and the other interviewers began to channel jobseekers in his direction. He talked to several and hired the ones he wanted on the spot.

Mrs. Hopson and Correll agree that one of the best features of their job is the opportunity for training and education. The Indianapolis office sent them both to the local branch of Indiana University part time during the 1970-71 school year for special courses to prepare them to handle Family Assistance Plan (FAP) clients, should that bill, designed to move welfare recipients into jobs, be enacted into law. Mrs. Hopson earned 15 hours of college credits and she said that over the years she has been given special training any time any new Federal manpower program loomed on the horizon.

Correll and Mrs. Hopson feel training and education are their best hope for advancement. Both struggled to get to their present levels—they each earn $690 a month now—and they do not want to stop there.

Correll, 34, is married and has three children. A native of Indianapolis, he served 6 years as an enlisted man in the Army in two separate tours of duty. A high school dropout, he got his high school equivalency certificate in the Army and now has 30 college credits, 15 of them at Indiana University thanks to his FAP training.

He did personnel work in the Army, liked it, and after a while as an assistant buyer and bill collector for a large department store came to the employment service. He has been there 3 years and is now both a placement interviewer and a supervisor of five other interviewers. Top pay for his grade is $720 a month.

Mrs. Hopson, 40, started as a clerk with the employment service in 1956 at $205 a month. With three children to support, she had worked previously as an insurance agent and a keypuncher.

At the employment service she advanced to addressograph operator, then to cashier in unemployment insurance. She became an industrial interviewer in 1960 and transferred to the commercial and professional office a year later as a test administrator. She has held her present job for 2 years, and is at the top of her pay bracket.

Job Seen as Rich Drama

To an outsider, Mrs. Hopson's and Correll's jobs might seem monotonous. They are usually stuck at their desks, asking clients much the same questions, and doing most of the rest of their work by phone. But they are not bored. Mrs. Hopson sees her job as a rich drama, filled by a wide variety of clients, employers, and job openings. Correll looks at it in much the same way.

Their main concern is that the jobs being called in now are not so good. Employers, aware of the tight job market, are offering less and less. "I'm beginning to feel that anything above $2.25 an hour now is wonderful," said Correll. Some employers take advantage in other ways, too. Some are asking for as many as 16 referrals for a job; normally 3 to 6 are plenty.

Yet some jobs go begging. The Job Bank viewer listed 38 openings for automotive mechanics or body men. Not one of Correll's 15 clients that day was a mechanic. Nor were any of the clients of the five interviewers he supervises. "Skilled men usually can still be placed," Correll said. "Tool and die men, no. They're one of the exceptions. But mechanics, electricians, and carpenters, yes." And he had no trouble placing a 52-year-old painter. "I've referred him six times and he's gotten four jobs," he said. "He's a good worker but if he gets mad, pft! He's gone."

Sometimes the story behind a job order is more important than the information officially conveyed with it. Correll had a request from a craft union for 20 men for a special 3- to 4-year training project outside its regular apprenticeship program. The employment service is barred by Manpower Administration rules from filling prejudicial job orders, so the order did not specify blacks. But Correll knew the union was after minorities to meet equal employment opportunity requirements. He simply went to the files, got out all veterans' applications (they're salmon colored for easy identification) and began calling black veterans. Nobody could object to his referring men who were both veterans and disadvantaged—the two top priorities now—to on-the-job training slots paying $3.95 an hour to start.

It was not as simple as it sounded. The job order specified men 31 or over, "to keep the openings away from those who usually qualify for apprentices," Correll said. "Black or white it's hard to find 31-year-old veterans with a car, in good physical shape, unemployed, who're not afraid of heights."

He immediately tried seven men by phone. Not one was home, or so their wives or mothers said, despite the fact that Correll carefully explained who he was and his purpose in calling. "When they hear my voice, they think it's a bill collector," Correll said. "They don't believe I have a job for them." He left his number, but certain that most of them would never call, he also sent followup post cards.

Mrs. Hopson, being a woman, gets very little static from her clients. One even sent her a dozen roses recently after she got him a job. But Correll has to take some flak. Besides occasionally encountering rudeness on the phone, he also gets it from applicants in the office, and some of these incidents reflect the racial tensions of our times.

He recalls that one young dropout, a black, lost his temper in the office and threatened him. "He was intelligent and had possibilities, so I talked him into going into the service to get away from his past. He was going to wind up in jail. Now he's in Air Force personnel work, just like I was. I really feel good about that placement."

Ex-Convict Gets Referral

Correll does not seem to duck tough cases. One of his clients was a 26-year-old black man, a dropout, with a speech defect. He was just out of prison after serving 4 years for armed robbery. Abandoned by his wife, he had three children to support. Normally, such a client would be referred to an interviewer in the Employment Opportunity Center, the section which handles the disadvantaged. But because the office's central information desk was out of operation temporarily, the man had come to the wrong floor and had been sent by the receptionist to the industrial and service section.

Correll sent him on a referral to a $2.25 job as a truck helper for an appliance firm. "Be honest about your record," he cautioned the man. "They'll find out anyway." The man went out immediately, was not hired, and came back that afternoon. Correll sent him out on another referral. "I like easy placements like anyone else," he said. "But every man deserves a second chance."

Placement interviewers like Correll and Mrs. Hopson fill a variety of roles. Most of the Nation's manpower programs are filtered through their minds and hands, and they act as counselors, wailing walls, and honest brokers for employers struggling to make a profit and for jobseekers looking for the opportunity that will lead to decent pay and a better life for themselves and their families. Whatever image they project is the image people have of the employment service, for it is they who have the most intimate and frequent contact with the public. □

XUM

Training Ideas From Britain

by Gary B. Hansen

The Industrial Training Act passed by the British Parliament in March 1964 established the structure for a unique national system of vocational training to be carried out on an industry-by-industry basis under the direction of specially created Industrial Training Boards (ITB's). Only public employment was excepted.

The main objectives were "to see that a sufficient number of people are trained (to meet the nation's skilled manpower requirements), to make recommendations about content and standards of training, and to see that the financial burdens of training are fairly spread throughout the industry concerned." To ensure this fairness and to spur employers, the Boards were given the power to levy taxes on all firms within an industry. These range from ½ to 2½ percent of payrolls. The money goes for administration and for grants to firms doing training acceptable to the Boards.

In the 7 years since the Act was passed, 28 Training Boards and the Foundry Industry Training Committee, encompassing two-thirds of the labor force, have been established.

Before examining what can be learned from the British experience, it should be noted that there are three major differences between conditions in Britain and the United States. First, unlike the U.S., Britain is a relatively homogeneous society with only small racial and ethnic minorities who are handicapped in their educational preparation for employment.

Second, in Britain the term "industrial training" describes what in America is generally regarded as vocational education and training. British youth do not receive vocational training as part of their secondary schooling and then seek gainful employment. The Youth Employment Service aids them in finding jobs—which usually include arrangements for vocational training—before they leave secondary school. The em-

Dr. Hansen is an assistant professor of economics at Utah State University. This article is based on a paper he presented before the National Manpower Advisory Committee.

ployment and training sought is commensurate with their aptitudes and interests. Occupational training for most young people not entering full-time higher education is a normal adjunct to employment.

Once hired, the young person may receive his training either on the job or off the job with related theory provided at a "technical college." The employer usually pays the trainee's wages and educational expenses. The acceptance of occupational training for youth as a concomitant of employment in Britain has resulted in a much greater reliance on on-the-job or industrially based training than on vocational education in the classroom. This is less true in America due to our acceptance of vocational education as a proper function of the secondary schools.

The third difference is the sheer size of the United States both in population and geography. All three factors, plus the necessity for cooperation among Federal, State, and local governments to implement training programs and policies, create additional difficulties not known in Britain.

Keeping these differences in mind, is there anything we can learn from Britain's new approach to manpower training? The answer, in my judgment, is a firm and resounding yes. The new training system has been largely successful in accomplishing its objectives, and some of its features could be adapted for use in the United States.

Boards Require Solid Industry Support

First, it can be said quite definitely that the Act is working, but not perfectly, and it would be instructive to look at its shortcomings before moving on to its achievements. As many people have learned, the Act is not a machine and it cannot magically increase the quantity or improve the quality of training. It is an administrative framework for promoting more and better training on an industry-by-industry basis. This can be done, notwithstanding money incentives, only if the Boards have solid backing from the firms in their industries. Boards have failed on this count in several notable instances. And the recent demise of the hairdressing ITB makes it clear that not all industries are suited to the creation of this particular training setup.

Although the Boards have made considerable progress in supplying skilled manpower to industry, much remains to be done. The number of craft apprentices being trained has increased substantially. But the training of personnel who may be more important to the nation's well-being—managers, supervisors, and technicians—has until recently lagged rather badly.

One serious problem not yet resolved by the Boards is the inadequacy of existing manpower information gathering and forecasting techniques. Initial efforts to match manpower supply to demand, therefore, have foundered on this shoal, scaling down the original optimism of those who anticipated more rapid action by the Boards in manpower planning. The Boards and the Department of Employment are working to obtain the needed information. Considerable attention also is being given to manpower planning and forecasting at the level of the individual firm. These are clearly long-term exercises, however. Until these techniques are developed, the Boards will have to continue flying by the seat of their pants—with predictable results.

The Boards' effectiveness has also been hampered by economic events since mid-1966. The economy has slowed, the pound has been devalued, and unemployment has gone up. The British now have the unexpected problem of retraining the unemployed as well as of filling labor shortages. The Boards were unable to respond swiftly to this need, demonstrating that in its present stage of development the Industrial Training Act is incapable of effectively retraining and redeploying labor. The Government, reacting to strong political pressures and great need, expanded its retraining efforts, and is now directly operating an adult retraining system parallel to the industrial training system being created by the ITB's. Little thought has been given to the ultimate relationship between the Government Training Centers and the activities of the Boards.

Much of the criticism leveled at the Industrial Training Act to date has centered on the levy-grant arrangements, designed to apportion costs of training more evenly between firms. Critics say these levy-grants are too complicated and burdensome to all concerned, and are neither fair in redistributing costs nor geared to achieve the correct amount of training. They question their effectiveness in sharing power and costs between the Government, the Boards, and individual firms, and say they may hurt economic growth.

These failures and criticisms, however, should not be permitted to obscure the Act's overall success, and the lessons that can be applied in the United States. First, the Industrial Training Board concept is a workable vehicle for improving and expanding occupational training. In most cases, the Boards are doing an excellent job. They spur the exchange of training experiences and techniques between firms and industries. The collection and dissemination of information through the Boards' publications and advisory services are having a substantial influence on raising the level of training competence throughout industry.

Similarly, the Boards have promoted interfirm cooperative training ventures on a much wider scale than was possible before passage of the Act. This has been a tremendous boon to small and specialized employers who, acting alone, were unable to afford the cost of developing effective training programs.

The Boards furthermore are developing realistic training standards and some excellent training syllabuses. They have also begun to place considerable emphasis on the development of management training. In the process they are developing radical new approaches which may lead the way to major reorganization and improvement in training below the management level. The Boards have helped identify training problems within given industries and they are promoting experimental, demonstration, and research projects of common value to their respective fields. The British have demonstrated that the best way to get action from the individual employer—particularly the small and medium-sized one—is not to exhort him but to give him practical aid in establishing a training program.

What about the levy-grant system? Is it a desirable or neces-

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sary approach for funding industrial training? Given the deep-rooted and stubborn nature of the problems, levy-grants have served a vital purpose in modernizing Britain's manpower system. Experiences of the previous period under the voluntary Industrial Training Council, as well as the difficulties encountered in the past 7 years, suggest that necessary reforms could not have been made without the centralized direction provided by the Boards and the combination of compulsion and incentive embodied in the levy-grant mechanism.

Certainly the levy-grants, however cumbersome or inequitable they may be, have helped bring manpower training to the attention of British management for the first time. The development of a firm's human resources is beginning to be recognized as an important management function. Furthermore, the responsibility of employers to train new entrants into the labor market has now been made explicit. There has also been a notable acceleration in the attention paid to training economics. Finally, the levy-grants have given the Boards the money to make some useful innovations in training.

Despite these positive contributions, however, levy-grants should not be retained, at least not in their present form. The past 7 years have proved that they are too complex. The concept of redistributing training costs among firms in a compulsory fashion has attracted widespread criticism, and has generally encountered too much opposition. Manpower training is a national as well as an industry problem, and direct funding by the government of general types of vocational training found to be in short supply seems a better and fairer way to raise the necessary money.

Advisory Service Practical for U.S.

With or without levy-grants, the British system offers a useful and potentially successful model for the United States. The overall role of the Boards may be unrealistic here, given our greater size and different circumstances. But the concept of a manpower training advisory service, developed by the Boards and Britain's Industrial Training Service (a small, competent training advisory organization which served as the prototype for the Boards) is both relevant and practical.

Indeed, one wonders why development of such a service has not been given more serious consideration here. At a time when concern for the disadvantaged and unemployed has become paramount in our thinking, the failure to provide employers with advisory assistance is surprising. During the past decade, a large array of programs to make more people employable at Federal expense has been inaugurated.

But we have omitted a vital part of the mechanism—a realistic and effective means of helping the employer do his part of the job. It is true that Ford, General Electric, and other firms among Fortune's 500 have the expertise to train people properly, and have done so on their own initiative or through the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector Program and the Manpower Development and Training Act. But one wonders how much more effective Federal programs would be if the British system were adopted. The likelihood is that many more small and medium-sized employers could be drawn into these programs and could improve their training capabilities. The result would be better training at the entry level and upgrading for more people, particularly the disadvantaged.

Technical training assistance is not altogether absent from the American scene, of course. Some is offered by private proprietary organizations. The little that the Federal Government makes available is provided on a crash basis or through hired consultants and is tied directly to specific manpower programs. For the most part, this assistance has limited impact and is expensive. Moreover, under existing manpower regulations, it is applicable only to programs for the disadvantaged and for specific kinds of assistance. It is usually employee- or applicant-centered. Rarely is this support designed to help an employer identify and overcome his own manpower training problems on a broader and more systematic basis.

The contrast between the extent and effectiveness of training assistance given individual firms under U.S. manpower programs with that provided by the British is striking. In my judgment the British approach is the better one. Serious consideration should be given to the development in the United States of a permanent Manpower Training Advisory Service (MTAS) under public auspices to perform the same functions as the British ITB's and Industrial Training Service. Such a service should be broadly conceived and organized to help any employer identify and resolve his training problems and improve his training competencies, regardless of whether he has a Federal contract to train the disadvantaged.

Among the specific functions envisaged for the MTAS are:

- Surveying job deficiencies and training needs.
- Designing, developing, and testing appropriate training programs.
- Planning the selection and training of training staff.
- Selecting and preparing teaching aids.
- Designing training accommodations or facilities.
- Measuring training effectiveness.
- Developing manpower budgeting capabilities for individual firms.
- Dealing with the special training problems of the disadvantaged.
- Disseminating training information.
- Dealing with the special training problems of small firms.
- Dealing with the special problems of employee upgrading.

A number of possible approaches can be suggested for developing the Advisory Service. There is at present no publicly sponsored institution in the United States comparable to the British ITS or ITB's. The most closely related organization at the Federal level is the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (BAT) in the U.S. Department of Labor. The BAT provides mainly promotional and organizational assistance to employers and unions desiring to set up apprenticeship programs. While its past efforts have been useful, this organization appears to be too traditionally oriented to the skilled crafts to be expanded into a broad gauge MTAS capable of assisting firms with the tasks outlined above.

Other possibilities at the Federal level include the creation of a federally directed MTAS within the Manpower Administration of the Department of Labor, within the Small Busi-

Britain *continued*

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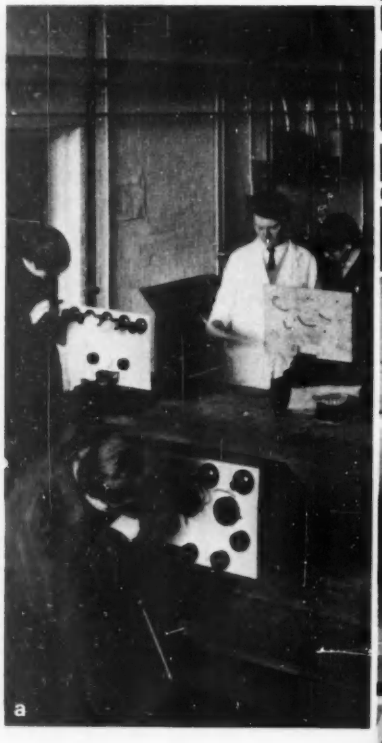
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a) *First-year off-the-job instruction in the Durham Engineering Training Association's program includes basic electrical skills.*

b) *Britain's future craftsmen work with a variety of hand and power tools during the first year of their off-the-job training.*

c) *Women preparing to be assemblers on a flow (production) line are given dexterity exercises.*

d) *Neophyte boatyard workers build a 14-ton motor sailer during their 48-week course at the Shipbuilding Industry Training Board Center in Southhampton.*

e) *An instructor (left) explains the operation and use of a crawler-loader to trainees at a Construction Industry Training Board Center.*

f) *Mechanical drawing is an important part of the development of technician engineers in the London school run by the Engineering Industry Training Board.*

ness Administration of the Department of Commerce, or in the Division of Vocational and Technical Education of the U.S. Office of Education. The Manpower Administration appears to be the most appropriate agency at the Federal level. Its current commitment to and activities in manpower training give it special qualifications for this work.

There are at least four possibilities for the development of the proposed MTAS at the State level: The State technical services agencies created by the 1965 Technical Services Act, the State vocational education departments, the State-Federal employment services, and the State land grant universities or some other academic institution concerned with the "mechanic arts." The employment service is an attractive candidate because of its evolution during the past decade into a manpower agency with considerable responsibility and diversity.

A major drawback, however, is that the employment service has had no previous experience with nor organization capability for providing the kind of sophisticated services contemplated for an MTAS. The imposition of a new responsibility at this point might further strain the resources and blur the focus of an already overburdened agency. For these reasons, colleges and other institutions of higher education appear more desirable candidates at the State level. One distinct advantage of the educational approach is that it would help bring together the expertise of technical and vocational educators, business school faculties, and the extension services to give specialized training courses for employers on a statewide basis (in cooperation with the MTAS).

Link Needed Between Employers, Schools

Much of the work of the MTAS in identifying employer training needs and in designing training programs could be fed back into the vocational education system to help improve the curriculum, increase efficiency, and improve teaching techniques. The MTAS could perform the vital function of providing an effective link between employers and the vocational education establishment.

There are at least two other possibilities for organizing training advisory services in the United States. We could follow the industry-by-industry pattern of the Industrial Training Boards. Or we could work through industry trade associations on a more modest scale. I am rather skeptical of this latter approach due to the variable quality of such organizations. Most of them are not up to the task. The model of the Industrial Training Board with its broader range of functions deserves additional study.

The development of a Manpower Training Advisory Service with broad power and responsibilities stands a good chance of contributing more to the improvement of manpower training in the U.S. than most of the changes in manpower programs that have been advocated in recent years, and at considerably less expense. Stated another way, an MTAS could help assure that Federal funds spent for manpower programs in industry result in better training for the unemployed and the disadvantaged. A well conceived Manpower Training Advisory Service would also contribute to the overall improvement of training in industry and to a more effective manpower policy in the United States. □

WIN and Women

Work Incentive Program Battles New Problems But Shows Progress

The Work Incentive (WIN) Program made good progress last year despite a tightening job market and a shortage of matching money by the States.

That is the gist of the second annual report of the U.S. Department of Labor to Congress on WIN, which seeks to move people off welfare into jobs through training and supportive services. "Many of the problems that hindered program startup have been reduced," said Labor Secretary J. D. Hodgson. "New problems have arisen during the course of the past year, caused to a great extent by the burgeoning AFDC (welfare) rolls and the financial crises faced by many State welfare agencies.

"WIN has steadily improved its ability to train and place in permanent jobs those AFDC (aid for dependent children) recipients it serves. . . . The WIN Program continues to be an important resource to help our welfare people move from dependency to self-supporting positions in our society."

The WIN Program began operating in August 1968. By last May 50,187 WIN participants were holding down jobs, according to the report. More than 44,000 of these were in regular employment; the rest were in on-the-job training or other government-sponsored work and training projects.

WIN was authorized by 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act. It is administered jointly by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) and the Department of Labor. HEW, through State welfare agencies, refers suitable welfare recipients to WIN for enrollment and provides child-care, medical, and other required social services. The Department of Labor, through State employment security agencies, provides manpower services, such as training and job placement. All 54 States and Territories are now participating.

WIN teams, usually made up of a counselor, work-training specialist, job developer, coach, and clerk, help each participant develop an employability plan which will enable him to obtain and hold a job. Sometimes a welfare caseworker is attached to the team. Services available to enrollees include intake and assessment, orientation, testing, work internship to uncover a person's interests and aptitudes, work experience, education, classroom or on-the-job training, child care, health care, job placement, counseling and followup, and relocation assistance.

'Matching Funds' Scarce

Enrollees who need special preparation to ensure job readiness are given remedial education, work experience, or skills training. During this period, a participant continues to draw welfare plus a $30 per month incentive allowance, and receives the special services he may need.

Enrollees who are job-ready are placed in a regular job or in on-the-job training. While working, enrollees continue to receive supportive services from the WIN team for 90 to 180 days. Female enrollees who become employed may retain the first $30 of their monthly earnings, plus the cost of work-related expenses, plus one-third of the remainder. This money is "disregarded" in calculating her family's welfare benefit. Unemployed fathers who get jobs continue to receive welfare benefits only if they are employed less than 35 hours a week. The welfare agencies may continue to pay for child care until the mother is able to assume the cost.

The report notes that in prior years perhaps the most important problem faced by WIN was getting an adequate number of referrals from welfare agencies. A second major problem was moving new enrollees directly into training or employment.

These problems are now limited to certain localities. Major issues now revolve around legislative barriers (which the report says could be removed by the President's proposed welfare reform program). These include the requirement that State welfare agencies provide matching funds for WIN manpower activities, child care, and the other supportive services required to maintain WIN enrollees. States generally are in financial trouble and find it difficult to pay their required share of WIN costs.

For WIN manpower activities, States must pay 20 percent of total program costs; for welfare supportive services and child-care costs, 25 percent; and for welfare administrative expenses, 50 percent. In fiscal 1971, 22 States either were forced to cut back on WIN or were unable to expand because of lack of matching funds. To offset the lack of cash for matching funds, the Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare are taking steps to speed the development of more in-kind matching, under

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which States could provide facilities and services instead of cash as their share of costs.

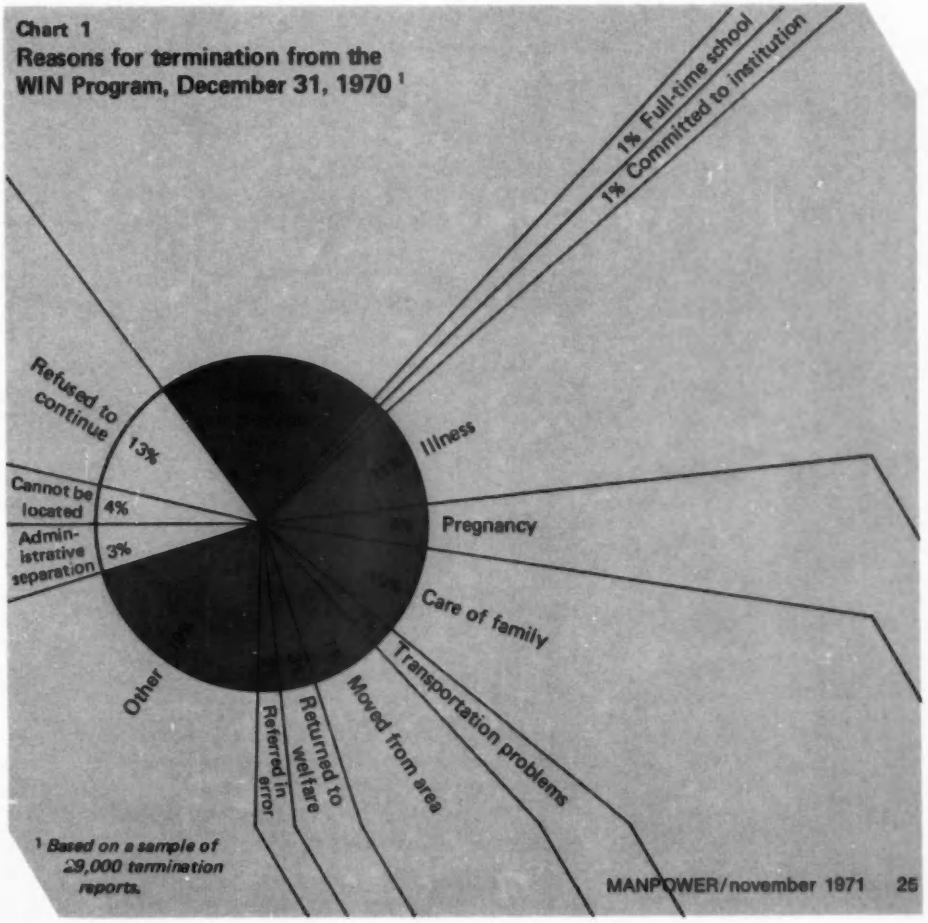
Holding—suspending an individual's participation in the program because of personal problems or difficulties in programing—while not the critical national problem it was last year, continues to be a serious barrier in some States. Holding among participants awaiting job placement was the only aspect of the problem that increased significantly during fiscal 1971. No real improvement is expected in this area until there is a substantial improvement in the job market.

The difficulties reported last year with regard to creating Special Work Projects continued. These projects provide subsidized work with public or private nonprofit agencies in unskilled or low-skilled jobs for enrollees who cannot benefit from work experience or training situations in the regular economy. No significant progress was made in getting States to establish them. Only 1,149 were enrolled as of April 1971.

Nor is on-the-job training (OJT) used enough to help WIN enrollees, the report says. Enrollment by April 30, 1971, was only 1,416. This problem persists despite the fact that WIN enrollees now have a 48-hour referral priority for all Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program openings. Expansion has been limited because some States require a time-consuming approval process for local OJT, many States fail to provide adequate training to WIN teams in OJT procedures, OJT and WIN functions have been separated in State organizational structures, and States are reluctant to develop OJT programs tailored to meet individual needs when it is easier to use other types of training.

A simplified OJT system has been devised for WIN and should be available soon to the States. Two States which have used the new system report that it greatly improves staff capability to interest employers in OJT contracts.

Another problem is the early termination rate (see chart 1). As of April 30, 1971, more than 123,000 WIN enrollees, nearly 80 percent of all terminations, had left before completing their employability plans. One major cause of early terminations is personal problems. These often are so pressing that they require immediate attention, and energies normally devoted to training and employment must be tem-



porarily suspended. An assistance check may be stolen from the mailbox; injury or illness may strike a family member; or the building in which the family is living may be scheduled for demolition and new housing seems unavailable. A recent HEW survey revealed that one-fourth of the people below the poverty level were anemic to a degree requiring medical attention. Poor health is a major cause of irregular attendance during training and employment.

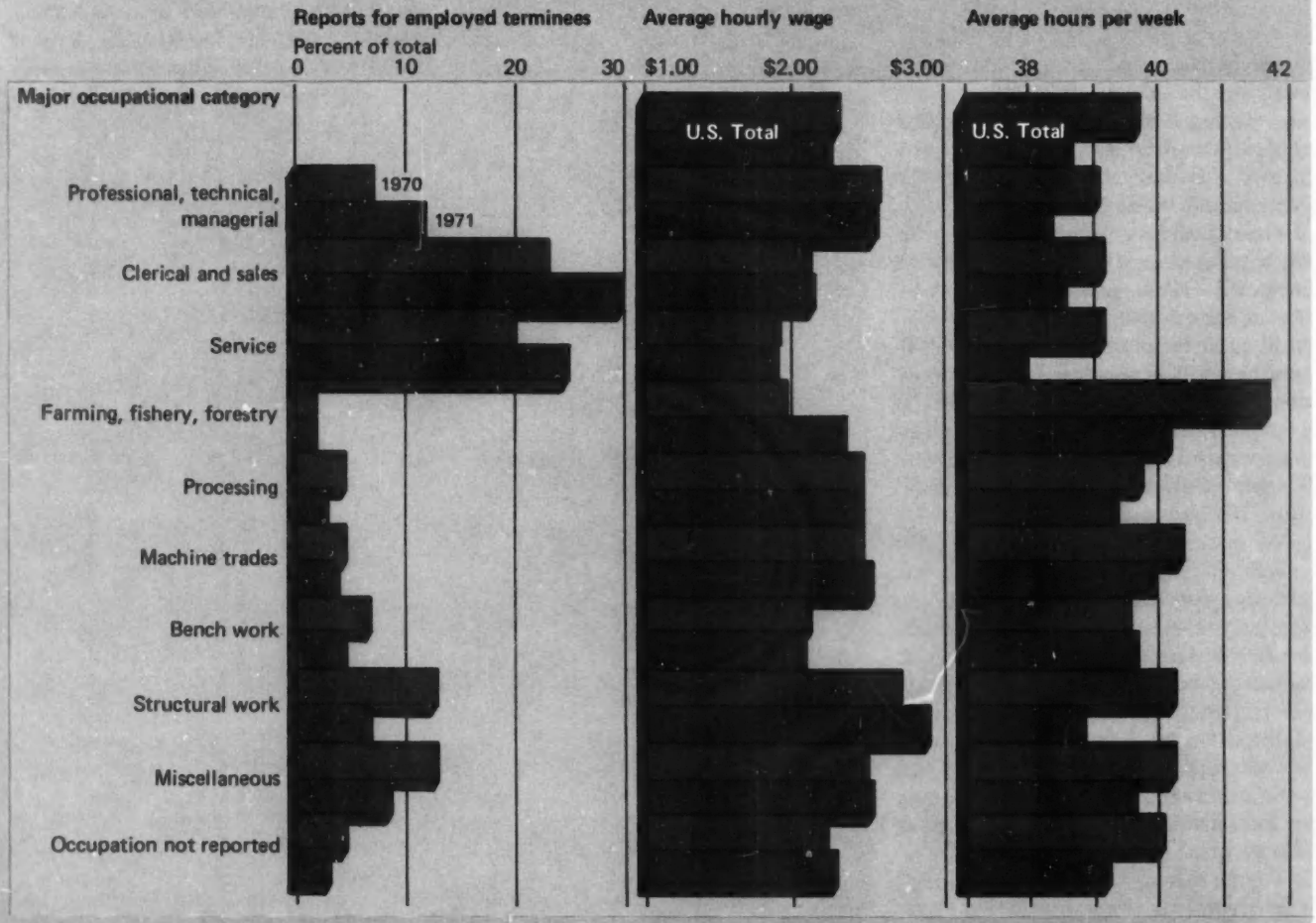
By April 30, 1971, there had been a total of 267,000 enrollments in WIN. Of that number 112,000, or 42 percent, were still in the program. A year earlier 56 percent of the total number of enrollees were still in the program. A WIN enrollee is counted as active in the program until he is placed on a job for at least 3 months, or has been terminated for other reasons. Included in the 112,000 were more than 99,000 in WIN training (including OJT and other subsidized jobs) and almost 13,000 who were working at regular jobs but still receiving followup services. Another 31,000 were holding regular jobs but had completed followup and were successfully terminated from the program, compared with about 13,000 a year earlier. Another 123,000 had left the program before completing their employability plans and were listed as dropouts or "other" terminations.

Successful completions began picking up in the second half of fiscal 1971. They increased from an average monthly rate of 1,436 in the first half of fiscal 1971 to 1,887 in the 4 months from January 1 to April 30, 1971, a boost of about 33 percent. During the same period, however, monthly dropouts and other terminations increased from 5,382 to 6,787.

The report does not say how many people have been moved completely off

Chart 2

Sample of WIN employed terminees by occupation, FY 1970 and 1971



welfare but it estimates the total annual savings for the 20,000 cases closed through December 1970 at $50 million. A total of $269 million had been appropriated for WIN manpower activities through fiscal 1971 and the average cost per man-year of training for fiscal 1971 was $1,065.

The average wage for employed terminees in fiscal 1971 was $2.28 an hour compared with $2.31 the previous year (see chart 2). This slight downturn was primarily due to substantially increased placements in clerical, sales, and service categories. These occupational groups—employing more than half of the nearly 7,000 terminees whose records were examined—reported wages appreciably below the national WIN average.

Job opportunities for female WIN enrollees are largely concentrated in the clerical and sales, service, social welfare, and health fields, with some opportunities in the professional, technical, and management category. Hence their training emphasizes basic education, clerical skills, keypunch operations, licensed practical nursing, and nurse aide training.

Wide Range of Jobs Held

Job opportunities for males encompass the whole range of occupations normally found in the labor market. The most frequent types of placements are for jobs in structural and bench work, machine skills, and processing and farming.

Data for fiscal year 1971 to March 31 show that 64 percent of participants were women, down from 71 percent the previous year. Some 56 percent were white (up from last year's 52 percent); 39 percent were black; 16 percent had Spanish surnames; and 5 percent were from other minority groups. The sharp jump in male enrollment reflects the impact of the recent economic downturn which forced more men onto welfare.

The typical WIN enrollee (see chart 3) in 1971 was a school dropout, with 19 percent having completed eight grades or less (down from 24 percent in 1970); another 42 percent failed to finish high school (down from 44 percent). Enrollees with high school educations or better rose from 32 to 39 percent.

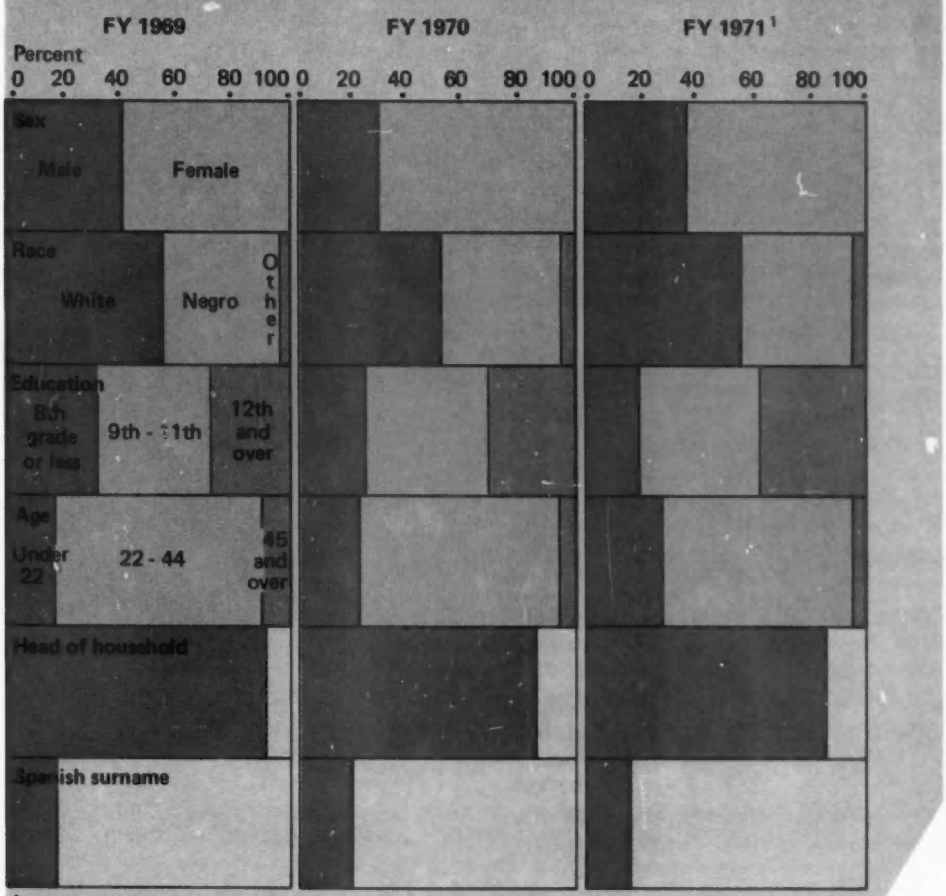
About 68 percent were in prime working years, between ages 22 and 44, down from 71 percent in 1970. Those under 22 rose from 22 percent to 27 percent of the total, and participants 45 or over slipped from 6 percent to 5 percent.

The completion rate of WIN participants varied very little by race or sex. The completion rate for blacks in 1971 was 22.3 percent compared with 22.1 for whites and 20.7 for all others. For women it was 22.1 percent and for men 21.9 percent.

But there were major significant differences in the successful completion rate of participants when broken down by age and education. Some 30 percent of those with a high school education or better completed compared with about 18 percent for high school dropouts and those below high school. And the older a person was, the better he or she was apt to do. Almost 30 percent of those 45 and over completed; the rate sagged to 24 percent for those 22 to 44, and sank to less than 13 percent for those under 22. □

Chart 3

Selected characteristics of WIN enrollees by year



[1] *To March 31, 1971*

Words & Figures

Services to Veterans

One million men and women were separated from military service and returned to civilian life in fiscal year 1971. During the same period, recently separated veterans—that is former servicemen who had been discharged within the previous 90 days—accounted for 475,000 of the 11 million applicants registered for employment assistance with the 2,300 local offices of the public employment service system. (It should be noted that in fiscal 1971, the total number of veterans, as distinguished from those recently separated, registered with the employment service was more than 2.5 million.)

The social and demographic profile of recently separated veterans differed in several ways from that of all employment service applicants:

- As would be expected, they were younger. Seventy-seven percent of the veterans were in the prime work age group of 22-39 compared with 47 percent of all applicants.
- The veterans were better educated. Eighty-three percent of the veterans had completed high school while only 57 percent of the total had 12 years or more of schooling.

Selected Characteristics of Employment Service Applicants and Percent Placed by Characteristic - All Applicants and Recently Separated Veterans, July 1970-June 1971*

	Applicants		Placements	
	All Applicants	Veterans	All Applicants	Veterans
Total, number (thousands)	11,025	475	1,511	66
Characteristic	(percent distribution)		(percent distribution)	
Age				
under 22	27	17	15	17
22-39	47	77	14	13
Highest grade completed				
0-11	43	17	15	18
12 and more	57	83	13	13
Residence				
Urban	78	76	14	14
Ethnic group				
White	77	83	13	13
Negro and other races	23	17	17	17
Spanish surname	6	5	18	18
Job ready	78	80	13	13
Handicapped	7	6	14	14

** Preliminary—Data for 46 States.*

- There were fewer minority group members among the veterans. Twenty-three percent of all applicants were Negro or other minority races and 6 percent were Spanish-surnamed. Of the recently separated veterans applicants, 17 percent were Negro and other minority races and 5 percent were Spanish-surnamed.

A few characteristics of the veterans were very similar to those of all applicants:

- Eighty percent of the veterans and 78 percent of all applicants were job ready.
- Seventy-eight percent of all applicants and 76 percent of the veterans resided in urban areas.
- Seven percent of all applicants and 6 percent of the veterans were handicapped.

The data show that veterans received essentially the same services as all applicants. Fourteen percent of both groups were placed in employment. Somewhat fewer veterans were enrolled in training—2 percent as against 3 percent.

Comparisons of placement results for veterans by characteristics show a higher rate of placement of the disadvantaged. The placement rate for school dropouts, younger ex-GI's, blacks, and the Spanish-surnamed was higher than the 14 percent average for all recently separated veterans. The placement rate for the Spanish-surnamed and veterans who were dropouts was 18 percent and for Negro veterans and those under 22 it was 17 percent.

Some 4,000 veterans, less than 1 percent of the entire group, were on welfare. Eighteen percent of those on welfare were placed in jobs and another 8 percent were enrolled in training.

Servicemen returning to civilian life are turning to the employment service for assistance in making the transition between military life and the job market. That help is needed is demonstrated by the fact that unemployment among veterans aged 20-29 was 8.2 percent in July 1971 compared with 7.2 percent for nonveterans in the same age group.

President Nixon's call for an intensive Federal effort in behalf of Vietnam-era veterans will have an important impact on the employment service. The requirement that Federal agencies and firms with large Federal contracts list all their suitable job openings with the employment service will give veterans far greater latitude in choice of jobs. The employment service already is required by law to give veterans preference on all suitable job referrals.

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against all odds

Twin Brothers Run Own Business Despite Muscular Dystrophy

Courage was not called for in Richard and Robert Santin Jr.'s contract to do on-the-job training. But the courage was there—between the lines.

The twin brothers, now 32 years old, have been almost totally disabled by muscular dystrophy since birth. To less hardy souls, the Santins' chances of becoming successful businessmen may appear infinitesimal. The brothers have badly wasted bodies and are confined to wheelchairs. To get from place to place they need motorized equipment or someone to push them. Someone must raise Richard's arms when he wants to use them, and Robert's voice is somewhat affected by the disease.

But despite these seemingly overwhelming problems, the brothers run their own business, Santin Two-Way Communication, out of their home near Fullerton, Nebr. They sell, install, and repair business and public service communications systems. Last year, their first in this enterprise, they logged more than 50,000 miles on trips around the State to merchandise and fix electronic equipment.

By combining their skills, the Santins can handle all aspects of the business so long as they have a trained technician to compensate for their underdeveloped muscles by doing things it is difficult or impossible for them to do. Last spring, when the Army drafted their technical helper, the Santins decided to train a new employee under the Manpower Administration's Jobs Optional Program, now the formal title of on-the-job training.

For Deward D. McIntosh, Jr., a 21-year-old from the same part of the country who had worked as a laborer and hospital orderly, the Santins' need became an opportunity to learn a skilled trade. Chance and a broken radio took him to the Santins' farmhouse, where their shop is located, and he became friendly with the twins. When the Santins learned they were going to need a new helper, they persuaded the young man to take the job and the training required to make him a valuable employee.

Mac, as the Santins call their new assistant, recently completed 21 weeks of electronics technician training during which he was paid $2.00 an hour. The Santins believe he has learned enough to qualify for his first-class radio-telephone operator's license from the Federal Communications Commission (FCC). As reimbursement for the costs of training Mac, the Santins

Just about halfway between the U.S. east and west coasts stands this business sign of the Santin brothers. It tells clients how to find their shop outside of Fullerton, Nebr.: 3 M West; 1/2 M South; 1 M West.

against all odds *continued*

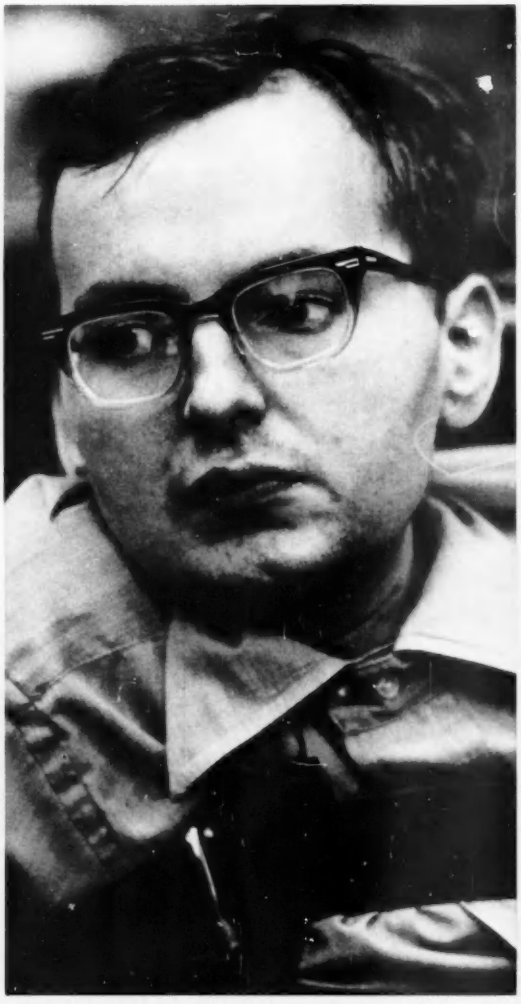
were paid $840 under the Manpower Development and Training Act. Under the Jobs Optional Program, the employer is reimbursed in a lump sum after the training is completed.

Training a new worker was relatively simple for the Santins compared with the difficulties they overcame in training themselves. The development of their technical and business skills was possible only after years of determined study at home to get a basic education.

When they were in the early elementary grades, a public school teacher visited them once a week and advised their mother on a curriculum. When they reached the sixth grade, the Nebraska Society for Crippled Children provided a communications system to connect them with classes at a nearby one-room schoolhouse. Finally, for their high school studies, the Santins took correspondence courses from the University of Nebraska. All through these years their grades were high

Robert Santin, like his brother Richard, is full of the joy of living and working. The brothers work from sunup to sundown every day, then enjoy going to night ball games or to nightclubs. Soon they hope to visit the "go-go places" in Kansas City.

During their stay in Washington, the Santins visited the D.C. Fire Department's communications center, where they saw a map of the District showing the fire equipment available at any given time and place.



Richard Santin believes that the greatest handicap he and his brother must still overcome is the shyness both feel when they meet strangers. The brothers, who seldom left home before they began their communications business, say that after the first few minutes—when potential clients may be startled by their wasted appearance—it becomes easier to do business.

Inside the van that carries them and their electronics equipment all over Nebraska, Richard watches McIntosh resolder a crystal socket to a circuit board.

Robert (left), who usually stays in the shop, sees Richard and McIntosh off to call on a customer.

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although things that are easy for others, such as holding books and writing, were physically difficult for them.

The brothers' interest in electronics was fired by articles they read about amateur radio. They started as "ham" radio operators, then began to take their hobby seriously. Richard read extensively about radio, basic electricity, electronics, and mathematics and took radar and navigation correspondence courses from the Navy. In 1964, he got his first-class radio-telephone operator's license from the FCC. Robert took bookkeeping and accounting courses by mail from the University of Nebraska in addition to studying electronics.

When neighbors heard that the Santins knew a lot about electronics, they took radios and record players to them to mend. As the twins gained experience in repairing, they decided to follow what apparently is their normal order of progression in all things—onward and upward. They applied to the E. F. Johnson Co., an electronics products manufacturer, to designate their workshop as a warranty service station.

Frank Abrams, the company's field representative for Nebraska, remembers the first time he saw the Santins. "Initially, I was shocked because I had not realized how great their handicaps are," he says. "But I got over this feeling in 5 minutes. What strikes you most when you talk to the Santins is their intelligence, personalities, and ambition. You stop thinking about their physical condition." Shortly thereafter the Santins got a green light from the company to market and service its two-way communications equipment.

Robert keeps the books and handles most of the correspondence and paperwork.

Their territory is all of Nebraska except Lincoln and Omaha, where other distributors were already handling the company's products. It is a difficult territory to handle, Abrams says, because clients are spread out in little towns and on farms many miles apart and are not concentrated like clients in cities. To cover the area the Santins use a van large enough to hold both wheelchairs and to carry equipment for sales demonstrations and minor repairs. Major repairs are hauled back to the shop.

Mac drives the van, most often accompanied by Richard. Robert usually stays home to man the shop and to keep up on the bookkeeping and other paperwork. All three work long hours, Abrams has found. He remembers well the day he drove behind the van in his own car as he accompanied Mac and Richard on their rounds. "We started early in the morning and drove hundreds of miles to make sales calls," he says. "By sundown I was ready to go to bed, but those two wanted to keep going. The Santins are accustomed to putting in 12-hour days, and Mac seems to thrive on this schedule. I wish other distributors in the three States I handle had their ambition."

On trips around the State, Mac gets into the installation end of the business and has to deal with a variety of consumer requirements. A rancher may want a base communications station set up in his farm office and mobile transceivers in a truck and tractor. Community police departments usually want to link the police station, a police car or two, and an ambulance. Among the Santins' other customers have been fire departments, schools, and veterinarians.

During training Mac spent most of his time in the shop studying electronics textbooks and learning repairing, circuitry design, and other aspects of the trade under Richard's tutelage. He did so well that Richard says, "He showed me a few tricks."

Now that Mac has joined forces with the Santins, the twins are busy drawing blueprints for the future. Soon Mac will do much of the traveling, on-site repairs, and installations by himself. The Santins will then spend more time putting together bids on local government jobs and reaching for their number one goal—getting into aviation communications.

"Radio is life-supporting in aviation," Richard says, "and it's a natural field for us to expand into." The Santins hope to work with the small planes popular both with Nebraska businessmen and with ranchers who "ride the range" in planes to inspect their cattle, crops, and land. To get into the field, however, they will have to open a new shop which meets standards set by the Federal Aviation Agency. As their electronics business grows, they hope to train other young men to work with them. And they plan to hire only handicapped workers. The twins note that this practice began when they hired Mac, who since birth has had a serious vision problem in one eye.

These may sound like big plans —but the Santins have already shown what they can do when they try. Their achievement was given national recognition last spring when they received the President's Trophy as the Handicapped Americans of the Year.

Mac came to Washington, D.C., with them—proud to have them as his employers and teachers. □

R&D Reports

Following is a selected list of reports on research and demonstration projects funded by the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. Copies of reports designated as NTIS are available from the National Technical Information Services, Springfield, Va. 22151 for $3.00 (paper copy) or 65 cents (microfiche copy). Send remittance with order and specify accession number (PB plus six-digit number). For reports not designated NTIS, single copies are available from the Office of Research and Development Utilization, U.S. Department of Labor, 1111 20th St. NW., Washington, D.C. 20036. Special arrangements may be made for bulk orders.

Basic Occupational Language Training

This project developed and tested a program of English literacy training for Puerto Rican workers. Workers in varied business and public service enterprises in five occupational areas were taught job-related English in small groups in a mobile language classroom parked in the vicinity of the job. The project reported that: (1) Language improvement did occur; (2) Job retention and upgrading were enhanced; (3) The assumption that older men resist training is unwarranted; (4) People with diverse backgrounds show improvement in a "relatively short" training period; (5) Language training was most effective when it was job-related. NTIS (PB 201469).

A Study of the Feasibility of Predicting Job Tenure Among Employment Service Applicants Through the Use of Biographical Information

Study of employment service clients that demonstrated the utility of biographical information in differentiating between those untrained and uncounseled disadvantaged black applicants who have a high probability of remaining employed for 3 and 6 months against those who have a low probability of retention for the same period.

A Handbook for Upgrading Low-Skill Workers

A series of guidelines for designing and implementing an in-plant worker upgrading program which draws upon the contractor's experience gained over 5 years in planning and management of upgrading programs for underemployed workers in over 250 organizations. Contains guidelines for planning, developing, operating, and evaluating the program. Includes a job task and requirements analysis methodology appropriate for determining training curriculum needs and a series of forms recommended for use in making the analysis. NTIS (PB 199129).

Transportation Opportunity Program—The First Three Years

Report of experience and learning gained in a 3-year period of Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) experimental and demonstration program. Describes and analyzes program functions, performance, findings, and statistical data. Training program includes two sections: (1) Full-time training of unemployed persons meeting MDTA poverty standards for entry-level jobs as heavy duty truck drivers; (2) upgrading of skills of underemployed workers in trucking industry —warehousemen, dock workers, hostlers or bobtail drivers—to heavy duty truck driving.

The Syracuse Upgrading Project

A project carried out jointly by an employment service and a university research team to develop upgrading training for lower level workers to fill shortage occupations, primarily in the metalworking industries. Employers, trade associations, and unions gave friendly approval to the project which survived both layoffs and a strike during its life. Training did not result in automatic upgrading, but for the most part enabled employees to bid on better opportunities as they opened. Most of the training was on the trainees' own time. NTIS (PB 201159).

Developing and Evaluating a System for Upgrading Educationally Disadvantaged Employees Through After-Hour Education

Project, conducted by the training and education section of Vanderbilt University Medical Center, provided basic education, using the MIND (methods of intellectual development) techniques, to employees in a voluntary after-hours program in the hospital complex. Major finding was that some long-time employees in "dead-end" jobs can be recruited for educational and job upgrading training in a relatively inexpensive, but well-structured, program. Report discusses recruitment methods, educational techniques, selection of teacher-monitors, class scheduling, and student motivation. NTIS (PB 199991).

The Employment Service Trains and Upgrades the Low-Skill Worker

Conducted in New Jersey, project was designed to test viability of building into a State employment service upgrading programs for low-skill workers. The capability was demonstrated. The significant innovation in this model was the development of human relations training for middle management and first-line foremen.

Development of a Model University Human Resources Program

Report of experimental project at University of Illinois to investigate how educational resources and skills might be organized and applied to major manpower problems. Project concentrated on role of the university in manpower planning activities of State of Illinois. Describes participation of university personnel in training manpower planning personnel at State and local level, developing manpower information system to support manpower planning activities, developing models for research and analysis on manpower planning and coordination problems, and assessing problems of joint governmental-university efforts.

Evaluation Report: The City University of New York College Adapter Program

Report of an independent evaluation of a program to explore the feasibility of providing out-of-school Neighborhood Youth Corps enrollees and selected trainees of New York City's Regional Opportunity Centers with special enrichment services as a means of qualifying them for college entrance (with guaranteed stipends and tutorial and counseling support) and linking the city's manpower programs to the resources of the public college system. One major finding is that almost all participants queried reported that as a result of their experience in the program they had initiated positive lifestyle changes and now look forward to productive careers. Report includes a brief description and history of the program; information on the scope and limitations of the evaluation; descriptions of the orientation component, curriculum, bilingual program, tutoring, testing, and participant reactions to the instructional components; information on recruitment and selection, individual and group counseling, and participant reactions to counseling; and a discussion of staff structure and functioning, agency coordination, and reaction of directors of participant referring agencies.

Military Health Manpower Project (Santa Clara County Medical Society)

Project provided career guidance and counseling to discharged servicemen who had some prior training in health occupations while in the Armed Forces. Project demonstrated that veterans with some medical training can be attracted to health occupations for careers if proper guidance and counseling are provided, and that a large national organization can effectively provide such guidance and counseling. Project staff worked with State and local agencies to modify licensing procedures and make provision for use of trained military corpmen. NTIS (PB 200152).

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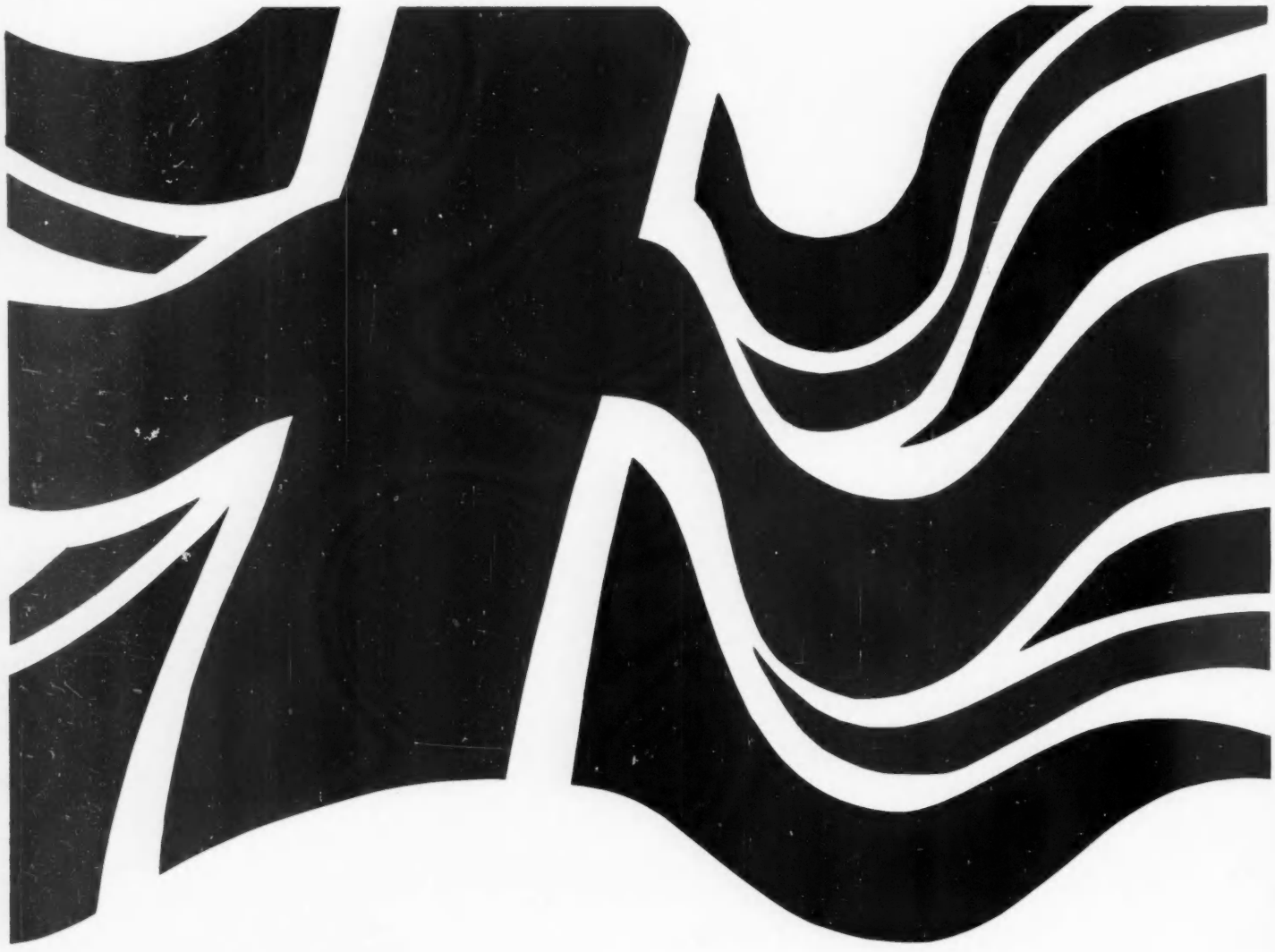

Britain's Industrial Training Boards, a "unique" national system of vocational training, "offers a useful and potentially successful model for the United States," says a Utah State University economist. He tells why in an article beginning on page 19.

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